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ABSTRACT

Intended to stimulate public discussion on the aims and policies of New Zealand education, this background paper has three major sections. The first section discusses the role of education in relation to equal opportunity, democracy, cultural difference, national development, and personal development. In part two, graphs, tables, and text give a summary view of enrollment trends, demand for teachers, academic attainment of students, and expenditures. The concluding section summarizes policy commitments and raises questions that bear on further developments within the system of public education. Photographs may reproduce poorly. (Author/DW)

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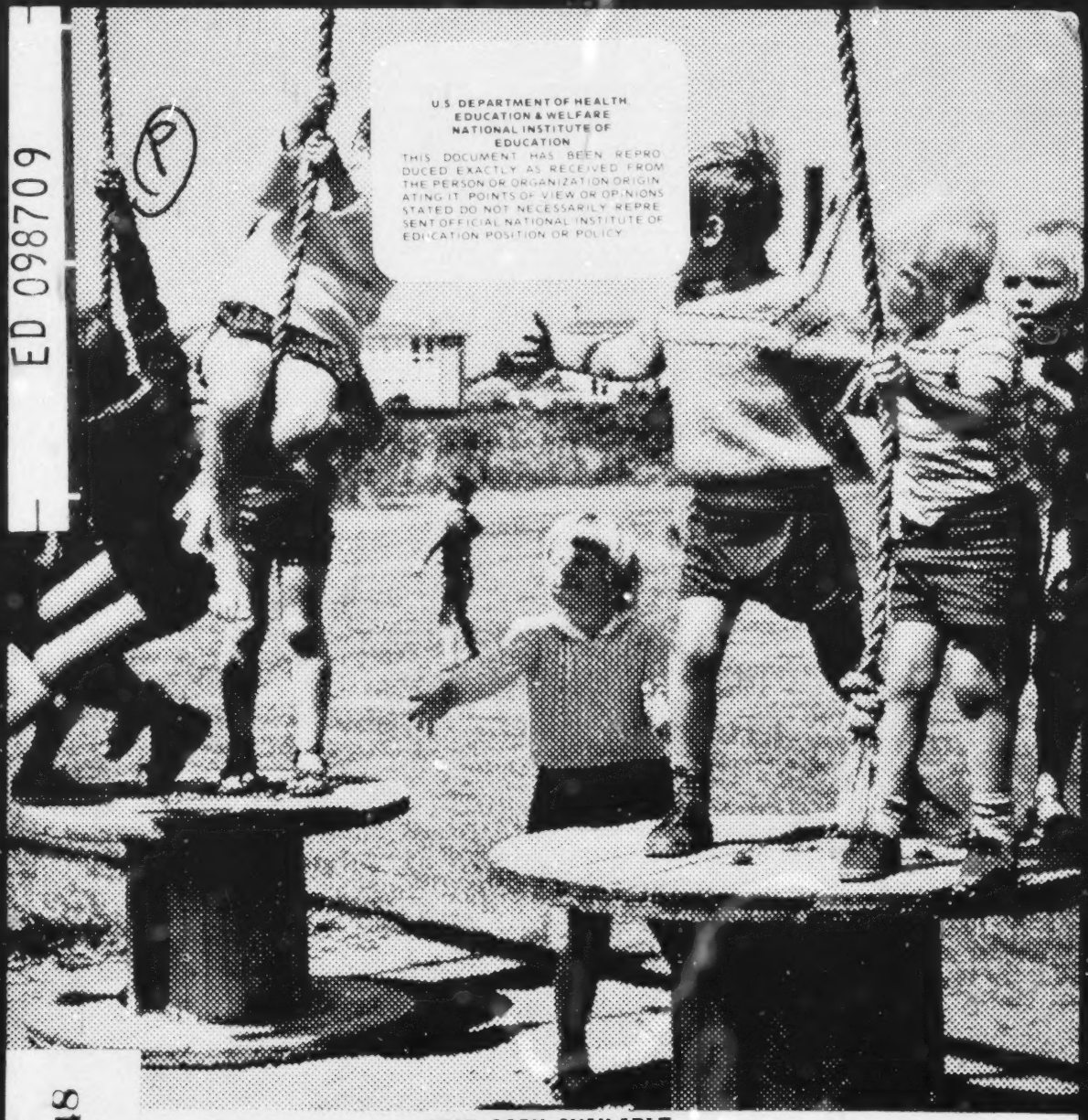

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Public Education in New Zealand

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WELLINGTON
NEW ZEALAND

INTRODUCTION

THIS STATEMENT first appeared as a background paper, entitled *Public Education in 1972*, for the first phase of the Educational Priorities Conference, held at Victoria University of Wellington, 15–16 August 1972. No attempt was made in it to assign priority to any of the issues raised. That task had been given to the Advisory Council on Educational Planning, whose statement 'Priorities in Education' was also available to the Conference.

Soon after the change of Government in November 1972, Hon. P. A. Amos, Minister of Education, replaced the Educational Priorities Conference with an Educational Development Conference and took various steps to stimulate public discussion on aims and policies in education. *Public Education in New Zealand* is published as part of the Department's contribution to that end.

The statement is in three parts. Part 1, Education in the New Zealand Community, discusses the role of education in relation to five main issues: equalising opportunity through education; education and democracy; education and cultural difference; education and national development; and education and personal development. Part 2, The Scale of the Operation, gives in graphs, tables, and text a summary view of trends and forecasts of enrolments, the demand for teachers at all levels of the system, the academic attainments of students, and present and estimated future expenditure on education. Part 3, Policies and Issues, summarises the main commitments of policy and raises questions that bear on further developments within the system of public education.

A. N. V. Dobbs
DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF EDUCATION

PART ONE

Education in the New Zealand Community

NEW ZEALANDERS set great store by education. The system of public education now provides a comprehensive range of educational services for all children, for many young people both before and after the years of compulsory schooling, and for an increasing number of adults in the pursuit of further education, training, or leisure interests. In the course of its evolution this system has developed its own distinctive character which, although not easily summed up, is nevertheless an expression of the aspirations of New Zealanders and the changing needs of New Zealand society. These aspirations and needs have never been—nor are they today—capable of translation into simple answers and uniform solutions. Public discussion of education has, moreover, often been spirited and controversial. What people care about they are prepared to argue about. But on one matter of fundamental importance there has been broad, if often implicit, agreement. It has long been accepted by New Zealanders of all ages and in all walks of life that, whatever else it should or should not do, the public system of education should provide opportunity for all children, regardless of background, ability, and promise, to develop their abilities so that their lives may become personally satisfying and socially useful. The continuing thrust of policy has been towards the creation of opportunity through education.

Equalising educational opportunity

Aspirations provide starting points for policies. The policies themselves may take time to introduce, but once they have become the expected norm—and sometimes even before they have—they in turn become a platform upon which yet more improvements or reforms are to be built. What Tennyson said about freedom slowly broadening down from precedent to precedent can also be said about the provision of education. It can certainly be said of the phrase 'equality of educational opportunity', the implications of which have become steadily more wide in the past century.

If we look at the Education Act 1877 and the University of New Zealand Act 1870—the legislative bases upon which our national system has been built—we cannot fail to notice the emphasis placed on the provision of opportunity through education. Bowen, the architect of the Education Act, sought to establish a system of primary education that would provide a 'key to knowledge for every child in the community'. The national system of primary schools was justified by its ability to increase opportunity faster and more effectively than had been possible under the provincial systems. This was especially true of children living in country districts remote from the main settlements. For them, however, the gross inequalities of opportunity long remained. 'The time must come', wrote Stout, the Minister of Education, in 1884, 'when to the bright and willing of every country district there must be opened the door of knowledge as wide as to the dweller in the city'. From that time until the present there has been a steady flow of policies aimed at removing, or at least reducing, educational inequalities that country children may suffer as a result of distance and isolation.

A leading objective in establishing the University of New Zealand was to provide within the colony itself, and within the reach of as many as possible of those qualified to take advantage of it, opportunities for higher education. 'I think that the sons of less wealthy parents,' said H. J. Tancred, the first Chancellor of the University of New Zealand, 'ought to receive the first consideration, and that the learning as well as the distinctions and emoluments of the University should be so regulated as to be within the reach of any students, poor no less than rich students, who may show an aptitude for study, or who may be ambitious of distinction in literary pursuits.'

The Education Act 1877 was largely confined to the provision of primary education.

Secondary schools there were, but they were established under their own Acts of Parliament which allowed their governing bodies to charge fees. By the end of the century, problems of entry to these secondary schools had become a stumbling block to boys and girls who, in increasing numbers, were successfully completing their primary schooling, were considered by inspectors to be fitted for secondary education, but were prevented from studying further because their parents were unable to pay the fees which most secondary schools imposed. This obvious denial of opportunity was taken up by Seddon as a social ill to be remedied without delay. Secondary school free places were introduced in 1903 so that, as he put it, 'the highest education could be brought within the reach of all, to enable the brightest intellects to be highly educated for the benefit of the rest of the country'. By 'the highest education' Seddon was, no doubt, thinking of university colleges, whose requirements for matriculation and the keeping of terms were, as a matter of deliberate policy, designed to encourage the poor, the part-time, and the extra-mural student to take advantage of their courses. His aim was to increase opportunity for boys and girls of academic promise. The secondary free places enabled them to climb as far up the educational ladder as their natural talents would allow.

In our community the proportion of boys and girls who will qualify for admission to a university is a relatively small, though important, minority. As the twentieth century has progressed, the attention of teachers, policy-makers and the public at large has, however, been directed increasingly towards the educational needs of the majority of children. The technical high schools, the first of which were established at the beginning of the century, broadened the concept of secondary education for boys and girls whose inclinations were practical rather than bookish. Since the introduction of Hogben's revised primary school syllabus of 1904, the development of courses of study suited to the educational needs of the full range of pupils has been a leading objective. During those years, too, teachers at all levels have been searching for ways by which the experience of schooling can be given meaning and significance for all children. These aspirations were crystallised in an official statement which has subsequently been regarded as one of the classic statements of the tasks of education in this country. 'The Government's objective, broadly expressed,' the Hon. P. Fraser wrote in the Annual Report of the Department of Education for 1938, 'is that every person, whatever his level of academic ability, whether he be rich or poor, whether he live in town or country, has a right, as a citizen, to a free education of the kind for which he is best fitted and to the fullest extent of his powers. So far is this from being a mere pious platitude that the full acceptance of the principle will involve the reorientation of the education system."

During the last thirty years this broad objective has been the touchstone of educational policy-making. The main policies and lines of development that have been introduced for the purpose of improving or extending the education available to children and young people can be summarised as follows:

Secondary schools have been planned, staffed, and organised to provide courses of study for all children of secondary age whatever their ability and attainment. This was largely the achievement of the forties and fifties. It led to the phasing out of technical high schools, a broadening of the curriculum of the older-established academic secondary schools, and the establishment, as the typical secondary school, of multi-course, co-educational schools in every community of any size throughout the country. The typical secondary school has long been non-selective and comprehensive, drawing its pupils and support from its neighbourhood.

There has been a steady improvement in educational opportunity for rural children, particularly at the secondary level, and, more recently, in relation to schooling in Forms 1 and 2.

Special educational services have been developed for children who, because of physical, mental, emotional, social or educational handicap, need extra assistance of various kinds. Some elements of these services—such as schools for the deaf and the blind, and classes for backward pupils—are of long standing. The development, as a matter of policy, of a comprehensive network of special educational services as an integral part of the national system of public education dates from the early 1950s.

Special attention has been given to the educational needs of Maori children, and, more

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recently, of children of Pacific Islanders who have migrated to New Zealand.

Specialist services have been developed to assist pupils and young people in matters requiring personal, educational, and vocational guidance.

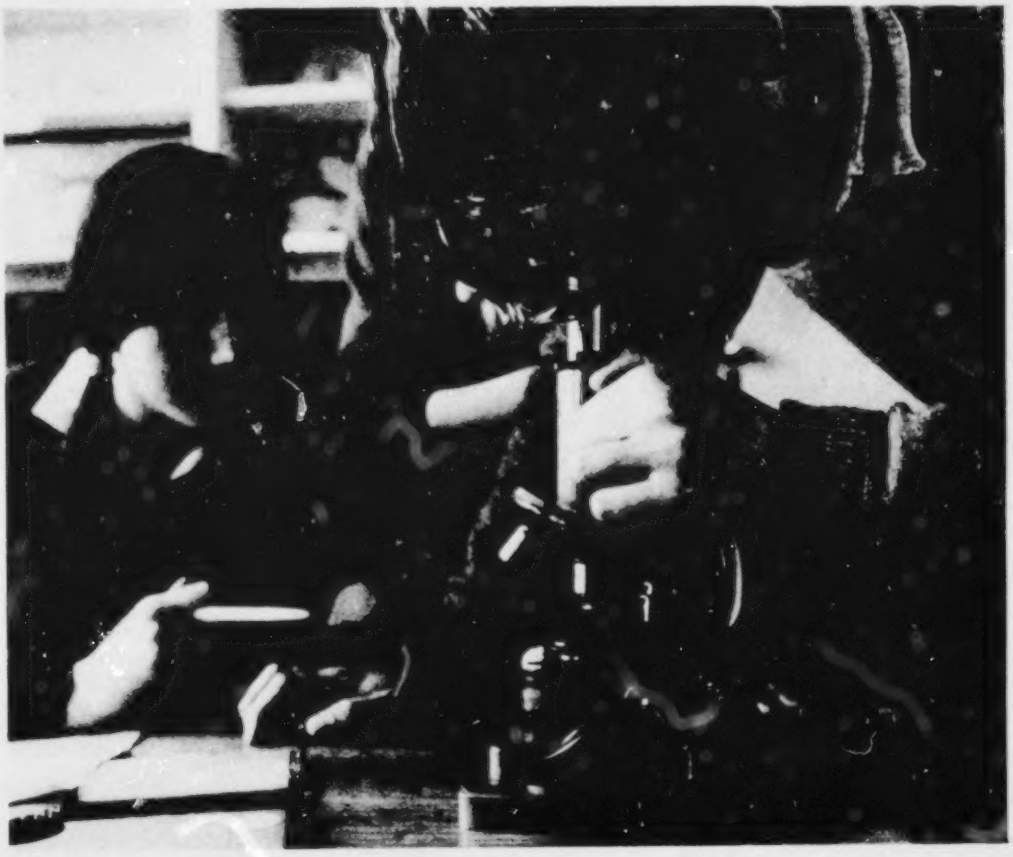
There has been a large and very important development in pre-school education.

The teaching profession has grown in skill and in its awareness of the educational needs of boys and girls of all kinds and capabilities and in its capacity to provide leadership from within its own ranks. This has resulted from improvements that have gone on continuously during the last thirty years in the education and training of teachers and in the processes of curriculum development.

A national system of technical education has developed alongside the universities and teachers colleges. It began in the late forties with day-release classes for apprentices, moved into the training of technicians in the late fifties, and developed rapidly during the sixties in the range of courses, in the number of centres providing senior technical education, and in the character and status of the technical institutes.

The universities have been able, during a decade of unprecedented increases in the number of qualified school leavers, to provide places for all New Zealanders with entrance qualifications who wished to study in them.

Active steps have been taken at all levels of the system to establish close links between



schools and the parents of the children enrolled in them.

The objective of providing for every person the education 'for which he is best fitted and to the fullest extent of his powers' is, indeed, a broad one. It is best thought of as a line of advance, rather than as a route-map with a clearly defined destination. There will always be inequalities that should be removed and educational opportunities that can be widened still further: there will, thus, always be new tasks for education to take on under the policy of providing equality of educational opportunity.

It has sometimes been asked whether the objective of providing equality of educational opportunity is at bottom an educational or a social ideal. While the schools were the main arena for the creation of opportunity through education, the question had no great practical importance. For teachers in the classroom, creating opportunities through education is synonymous with catering to the individual needs of their pupils. In our time, however, it has become plain that the schools, though important, are only one of the institutions in society with a stake in the provision of equality of educational opportunity. The bearing on the work of the schools of what happens to children before they enter school, while they are enrolled at school, and after they have left school, is widely appreciated. In the education of girls and women, to take one important issue, the main tasks of education probably lie outside the schools, universities, and technical institutes: they lie, rather, in changing deep-rooted attitudes—the fruits of centuries of habit and informal social learning—concerning the roles of men and women, and the place of women in the home, at work, and in society at large. This is not to undervalue the importance of education as an instrument of social policy. But it does suggest that the barriers to equality of opportunity, as we see them today, may require the taking of educational initiatives in fields which are at present marginal to the formal education system. This would include further developments in education for parenthood, the training, re-training, and continuing education of adults, and the further development of social welfare services in close association with the schools.

We shall continue, no doubt, to see the provision of equality of educational opportunity as one of the leading objectives of the public school system. Our concern is likely, however, to be less with inequalities of opportunity than with inequalities of educational performance; less, perhaps, with the creation of opportunity through education and more with the quality and appropriateness of the education provided for each person.

Education and democracy

Not a great deal is said these days about the schools as training grounds for a democratic society, much less than was said in the years immediately following the Second World War. Then we had, as New Zealanders, been brought face to face with the results of tyranny and dictatorship; and in common with other societies dedicated to a democratic way of life we were determined that our schools should seek objectives compatible with the rights and obligations of democratic citizenship. In more recent years public attention has been directed to other issues—to such important matters as national and regional economic development, the conservation of natural resources, the personal and moral development of young people, the maintenance of social harmony, and the role of the education system in improving the life-chances of children with disabilities and handicaps.

Within New Zealand the view is sometimes expressed that democracy exists in name only: that the policies of Government are made by a few decision-makers who consult as much or as little as they themselves decide. It is claimed that the great mass of the population, though heard out patiently, is in practice ignored when matters of moment are being determined. It cannot, of course, be claimed that in New Zealand's form of democratic government all citizens may themselves directly influence the executive decisions that are to bind them. Democracy in this sense does not exist, nor in the conditions of the modern world is it likely to. It is a reflection of our relative smallness as a political community and of the high degree of national cohesion that we have achieved, that individual New Zealanders should experience feelings of frustration that they are not themselves directly influencing decisions of government that will affect their daily lives.

These feelings are not confined to matters of educational policy. They may also apply in fields such as justice, social welfare, health, economic policy, defence, and foreign affairs. But in most, if not all, of these other fields the issues are largely unfamiliar to laymen, though they may engender strong feelings. They presuppose a degree of expertise that is likely to be found only among relevant professionals and persons whose experience gives them a claim to be heard. With education it is different. Every adult in the community has been to school. Nearly all are parents, grandparents, uncles or aunts of school pupils, and a large number are directly concerned with administering the school system. Education bears directly on the life chances of every boy and girl: and everyone in the community knows that it does.

What price, then, democracy in education? So far as New Zealand is concerned there are two main answers to this question. In the first place, the education system itself is organised in ways that enable a high degree of participation by parents and members of the community at all levels from the local school committee, board of governors, and parents' association, to the bodies and organisations that bring their influence to bear on policy-making at the national level. In the second place, all planning decisions for the schools themselves proceed on the assumption that New Zealand is a democracy and that an essential part of the schools' mission is to prepare young people for responsible citizenship in a democracy.

Democratic citizenship is a social ideal: preparation for citizenship in a democracy is an objective of the schools. Whatever may be said of the ideal, there is no doubt about the commitment of the Department of Education and of the schools to the objective. They take the objective very seriously indeed. The question, so far as the schools are concerned, is not one of ends but of means. Within the syllabuses of instruction, the social studies course has long been established as the place in the school programme where children are introduced to the bases of various political systems, to the premises of democracy, and to the conditions required for its survival and development. Within the schools themselves, more attention is being given to ways by which their pupils and students can learn the principles of democratic citizenship by being placed in situations that require them to make choices, carry out decisions, and live with the consequence of their choices and actions. When teachers set up classroom activities that encourage pupils and students to sift evidence, sort out the facts from the fantasies, form opinions on the pros and cons of an argument, and relate their conclusions to the consequences for themselves and other people of actions based upon them, they are preparing young people for citizenship in a democracy. And when the processes of investigation, discussion, and collective decision-making are carried out in a classroom pervaded by a spirit of integrity, mutual respect, sensitivity, and tolerance, the school is playing its full part in helping its students to develop as individuals and to live effectively with others.

Education and cultural difference

One feature of our public education system is so much taken for granted that it is worth mentioning by way of a reminder. Ours is an integrated system: all children in any given district may enrol at their local school, and nearly all, in fact, do so. We need only to think of some other countries to be reminded of our good fortune. It means, quite simply, that the fundamental requirement for equality of educational opportunity—integrated schooling for the children of all backgrounds—has been achieved. The efforts of the schools and the community generally can be directed towards ensuring that every child is given the kind of education best suited to his individual needs.

On that last point there is still much to be achieved for Maori and for other Polynesian children. Until quite recently, discussions of educational objectives focused on the attitudes, values, and aspirations more commonly held by pakeha New Zealanders. School curricula have for a generation included study of Maori tradition and culture. But it was not until, through internal migration, Maori boys and girls began to be enrolled in significant numbers in urban schools that teachers generally had to become attentive to their special needs and abilities. Teachers, in common with other members of the community, are attempting to come to terms with the significance of cultural difference in the New Zealand setting. It is now being widely realised that ways have to be found of introducing both Maori and pakeha children

to their dual heritage as New Zealanders.

We are, as a nation, committed to a policy of integration: two races, one people. It is a policy that places a great responsibility on education as a major social influence. Any restatement of educational objectives must give full weight to it.

Education and national development

For as long as there have been national systems of education, the links between the schools and the economy have been close, continuous, and important. In New Zealand society, as in most others during the last century, preferment on the basis of wealth and social influence has given way to selection on the basis of merit and appropriate qualifications. Schools, colleges, and universities play a crucial part in this process of selection. It is a function of our educational system that has received a great deal of attention during the last decade. The tendency for pupils to stay longer at secondary school is clearly related to the growing importance of formal educational qualifications in an economy that is coming increasingly to value trained intelligence. The expansion of universities and the development of technical institutes are also related to the same trend.

In a world attuned to technological change, it is clear that the education system must continue to be sensitive to the unfolding needs of the New Zealand economy. Without higher levels of education and vocational training, higher levels of productivity will be difficult to achieve. Without higher levels of productivity, further improvements in education could well be delayed for want of the financial and other resources needed to support them. The reciprocal nature of this relationship is now much better appreciated than it was even a few years ago. There can be no doubt that the schools and colleges should accept a responsibility for national development. The questions are how much importance they should give to this objective among others, and how they can best make their contribution to it. For tertiary educational institutions—universities, technical institutes, and teachers colleges—the responsibility will be much more immediate and pressing than it will be for the schools.

The changing role of the secondary school is worth mentioning in this connection. During the last decade or so there has been a marked decline in pre-vocational training courses given in secondary schools. This has been associated with the development of vocational training at the tertiary level, particularly through the growth of the technical institutes and the diversification of their courses. It has been associated, too, with changes in attitudes among an increasing number of employers, who now expect to find among school leavers evidence of a sound general education, with competence in English and mathematics, as their main vocational pre-requisites. For their part, the secondary schools are rethinking their approaches to the general education of their pupils, particularly those who in earlier years would have found themselves in specialised vocational courses.

Education and personal development

In the final analysis education is concerned with the development of persons: and in the fostering of this development the schools and other institutions of public education have an important part to play. Schools exist to provide forms of experience that cannot be provided at all, or cannot be provided as well, by families and other institutions, such as churches and community organisations. It is generally assumed that, outside the family, schools are the greatest single influence on children and young people. Certainly all discussions on public education take that as their starting point. As to the nature of that influence, however, there are always marked differences of opinion. For as long as there have been schools there have been debates about the nature of their contribution to society: whether they are effectively carrying out the tasks allotted to them; whether these are the right tasks, having regard to the needs of society and the capabilities of the children and young people entrusted to them; and how, if the schools are to be given new tasks to perform, they are to be enabled to do them. In New Zealand today, as in many other countries, there is searching discussion in many places about the objectives of public education and the tasks of the schools. So far as the schools—especially the secondary schools—are concerned, these discussions centre on the fundamental issues of schools as places where children and young people spend a great part of their

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lives and are taught those things that the community believes to be in their best interest.

It seems to be assumed in these discussions that the schools should accept greater responsibility in fields of personal and moral development that were until recently rather more the responsibility of families, churches, and other institutions outside the school. This shows clearly in various proposals for primary and intermediate schools to provide social education, including sex education, as a regular part of the curriculum, and for secondary schools to continue and extend the courses in social education that most now provide. But schools are public institutions; and the further that they are expected to venture into fields of private morality, the more do they face a dilemma: in a community in which views on private morality, especially sexual morality, diverge so much, what standpoint should teachers, acting in the public interest, be expected to take? Nor are teachers, any more than the community at large, of one mind. On questions of morality, conscience, and social concern there is a wide diversity of opinion among teachers, as there is in the community at large.

These issues, we have already noted, are of special concern to secondary teachers, for it is among their students that conflicts of opinion, value, and behaviour arise most forcibly. Teachers are expected to act *in loco parentis* but it is becoming more and more difficult for them to know how they should act in this role, so various are the attitudes and life styles of the parents to whom they must discharge that responsibility.

The signs are that a point has been reached when an attempt should be made to formulate the responsibilities that public education should be expected to shoulder for society. Such a statement should set out objectives for the institutions of public education at various levels. The Department believes the issues raised in these pages so far to be highly relevant to such an inquiry.

PART TWO

The Scale of the Operation

CONTINUING EXPANSION has been a dominant feature of the New Zealand education system for many years. The following table summarises this expansion during the last decade.

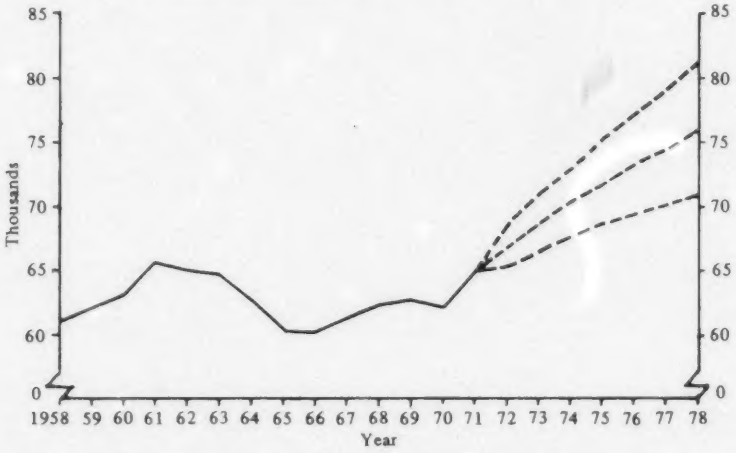
ENROLMENTS AT EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

YEAR	FULL-TIME ENROLMENTS	PART-TIME ENROLMENTS	TOTAL NUMBERS	PERCENTAGE OF MEAN POPULATION
1961	575,650	86,183	661,833	27.2
1966	670,981	125,376	796,357	29.7
1971	745,370	152,315	897,685	31.3

SOURCE: *Department of Education, Annual Report, 1972.*

The number of enrolments is likely to increase further during the next decade. But the percentage of the total population enrolled at educational institutions is expected to remain relatively stable. The greatest percentage increases are likely to be found in pre-school and tertiary, particularly technical, education. The rolls given above are confined to the formal education system and do not include education and training provided by other bodies and agencies.

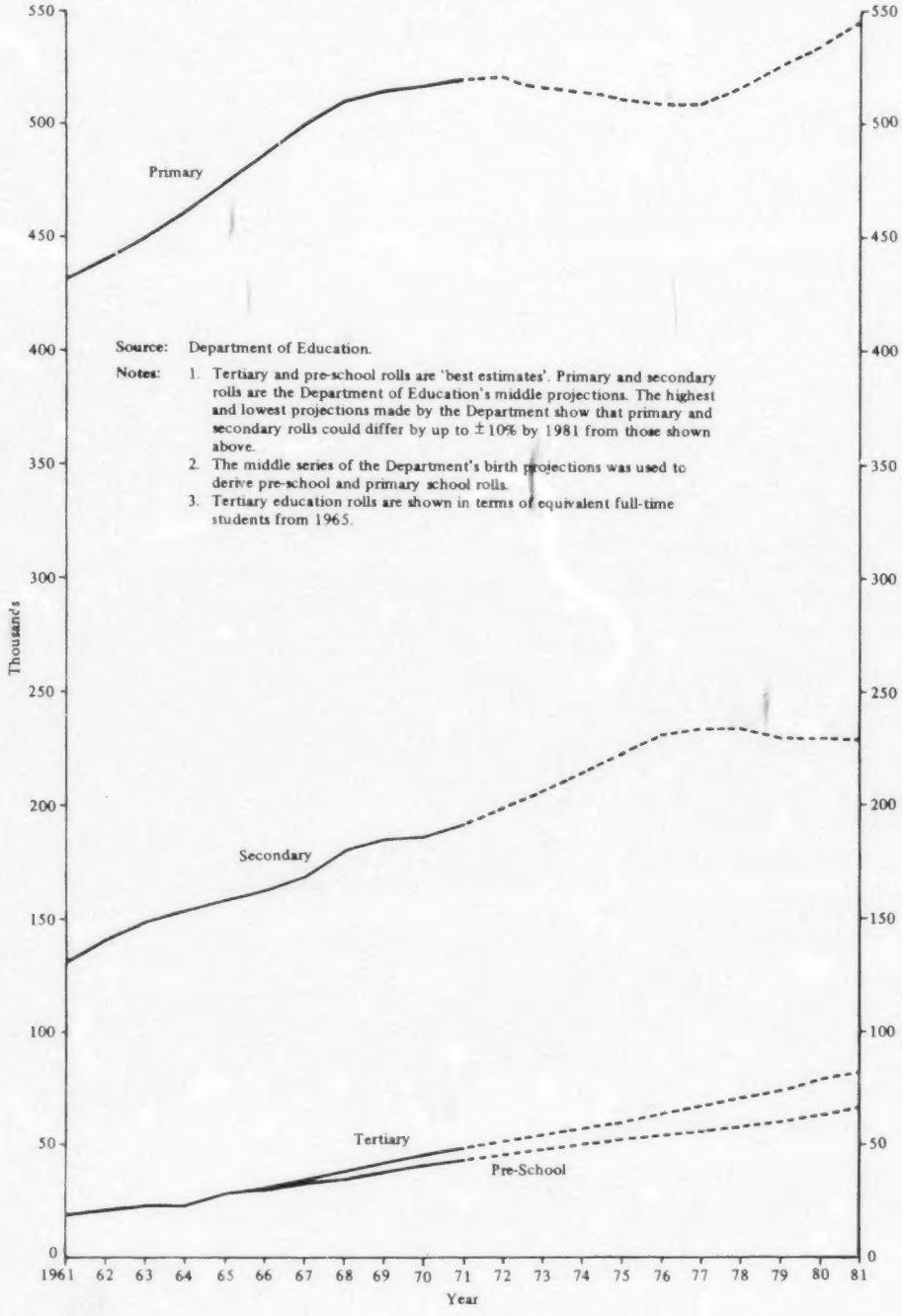
Figure 1: Live Births, 1958-1978
Actual: 1958-1971. Projected: 1972-1978



Sources: 1. Department of Statistics: 1958-1971.
2. Department of Education: 1972-1978.

Figure 2: Rolls of Educational Institutions, 1961-1981

Actual: 1961-1971. Projected: 1972-1981



Source: Department of Education.

Notes:
1. Tertiary and pre-school rolls are 'best estimates'. Primary and secondary rolls are the Department of Education's middle projections. The highest and lowest projections made by the Department show that primary and secondary rolls could differ by up to ± 10% by 1981 from those shown above.
2. The middle series of the Department's birth projections was used to derive pre-school and primary school rolls.
3. Tertiary education rolls are shown in terms of equivalent full-time students from 1965.

Births

Annual numbers of live births are a main influence on the later size of school populations at all levels. Figure 1 shows the variations in these numbers during the last fourteen years. Since 1965 there has been a slow but fairly steady annual increase in the number of births. At the present time, however, the future rates of annual increase are not clear. In its projections of school rolls for the last years of the decade the Department is at present using five sets of assumptions for live births, the middle three of which are graphed in Figure 1. These assumptions and projections will be revised each year.

Pre-school education

In the last decade rolls of kindergartens and play centres have more than doubled to reach 43,000 in 1971. If the present trends continue, about 40–45% of three and four year olds, totalling about 65,000 children, will be in kindergartens and play centres in 1981.

Primary Schools

For the first time in thirty years, New Zealand is entering a period when primary school rolls are expected to decline slightly. Not until 1979 are they expected to exceed the 1971 figure. This decline reflects the drop in the number of births reported in the 1960s, as shown in Figure 1. The rise in rolls towards the end of the 1970s mirrors the post-war 'baby-boom': the children of the late 1940s are becoming parents of school children in the late 1970s.

Secondary schools

Secondary school rolls are expected to increase annually until 1977. The decline in births in the 1960s may then cause rolls to drop until 1981 despite an expected continuation of the tendency for students to stay longer at school. Thereafter further increases are likely. The tendency to stay longer at secondary schools is marked at all levels. Of those leaving secondary schools in 1961, one in three had received no more than two years of secondary education. In 1971 the proportion was one in six. Figure 3 shows the position in senior forms. In 1971, 48% of both boys and girls who had entered secondary schools in 1968 were in their fourth year of secondary education compared with 35% and 31% respectively ten years earlier. The more rapid growth in the retention rate for girls at this level is also a noteworthy feature, though the rate for fifth year girls is growing more slowly than that for fifth year boys. The main influences contributing to the rise in retention rates in 1968 were probably the alteration to the School Certificate regulations permitting passes in single subjects, and the economic recession of 1967–68.

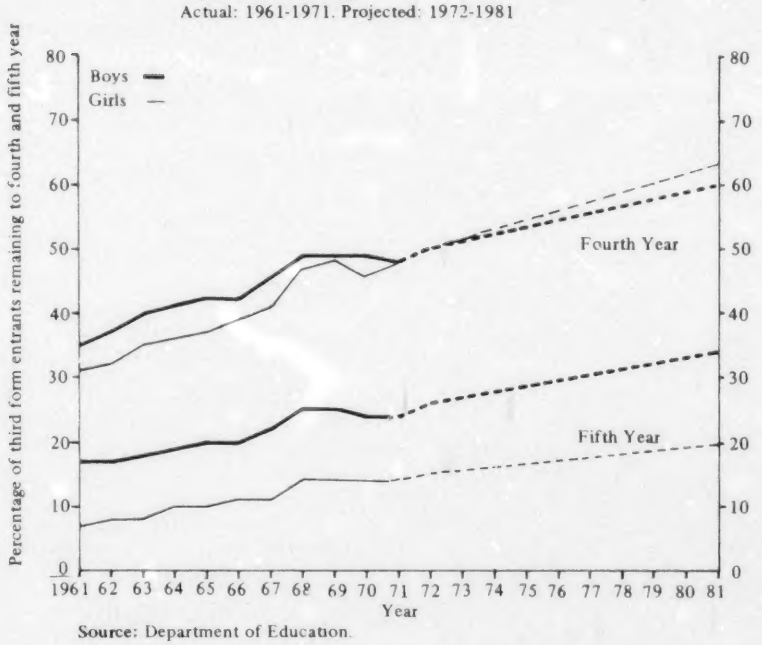
The retention rates projected in Figure 3 are subject to a number of influences that could affect them markedly. Adverse economic conditions, a wider range of courses available in sixth and seventh forms, and changing perceptions of the role of women could result in increased retention rates. On the other hand, recent publicity alleging a surplus of graduates, and the further development of technical institutes as alternatives to universities for post-secondary education, could result in a slower rate of increase in the number of fifth year students.

Not only are pupils staying longer at secondary schools, they are leaving with higher educational qualifications. Of pupils entering secondary school in 1966, over three-quarters stayed on until Form 5, and nearly three-fifths left with an educational award of at least one School Certificate subject. About one-third obtained a sixth form qualification and one-quarter University Entrance or a higher qualification. Of this same group of students about one-sixth on leaving intended to undertake full-time study at a university, technical institute, or teachers college. A further one-sixth intended to take up trade or technician occupations involving part-time study at a technical institute.

Technical institutes

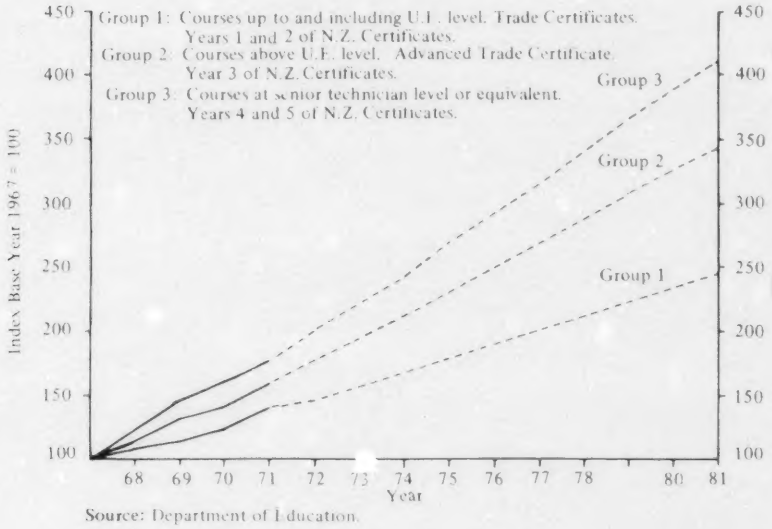
Technical institute rolls increased from nearly 14,000 in 1961 to nearly 49,000 in 1971. The number of student-hours, which is a better measure of technical institute growth, rose from 7.7 million in 1967 to 11.2 million in 1971, an increase of 45%. On present trends, the number of equivalent full-time students could rise from about 11,000 in 1971 to reach

Figure 3: **Retention of Fourth and Fifth Year Students at Secondary Schools, 1961-1981. (Percentages are based on earlier third form intakes.)**
Actual: 1961-1971. Projected: 1972-1981



Source: Department of Education.

Figure 4: **Growth Index of "Student Hours" in Technical Institutes, by Level of Course, 1967-1981**
Actual: 1967-1971. Projected: 1972-1981


Group 1: Courses up to and including U.E. level. Trade Certificates. Years 1 and 2 of N.Z. Certificates.
Group 2: Courses above U.E. level. Advanced Trade Certificate. Year 3 of N.Z. Certificates.
Group 3: Courses at senior technician level or equivalent. Years 4 and 5 of N.Z. Certificates.
Group 3
Group 2
Group 1
Index Base Year 1967 = 100
Year
450
400
350
300
250
200
150
100
68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 80 81

Source: Department of Education.

16,000 by 1976 and 21,000 by 1981. These estimates do not take into account any increases in the demand for technical education that could arise from changes in the training of apprentices or from decisions to transfer to the institutes the training of occupational groups that are at present trained elsewhere.

The greater part (96% in 1971) of institute rolls consists of part-time students of whom apprentices and technical professional students form the two major groups. Figure 4 shows the changing composition of the technical institute population.

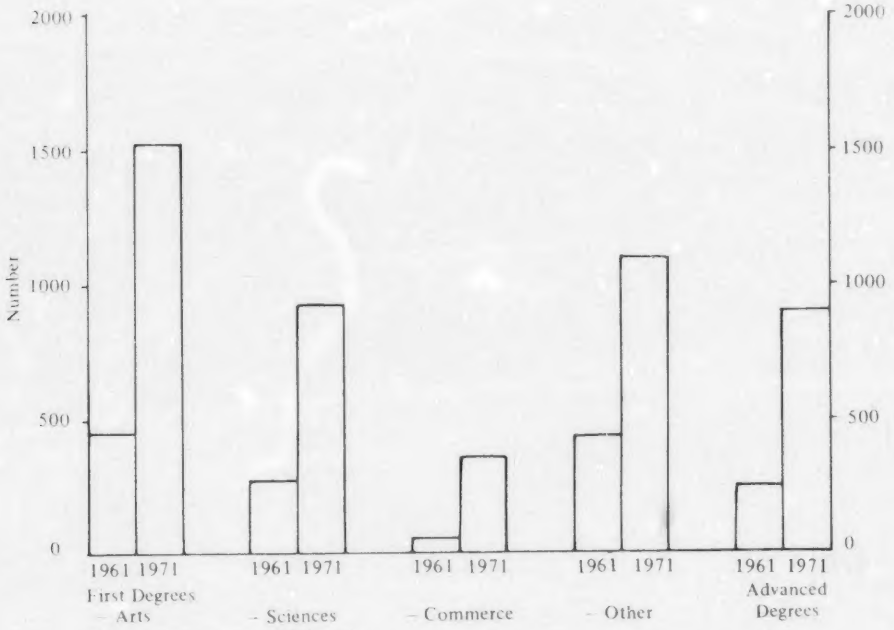
During the last four years there has been a faster rate of increase in the demand for courses at the higher levels. This trend is expected to continue and, as a consequence, the institutes will be teaching proportionately more students at higher levels. Over the period 1961 to 1970, the number of New Zealand Certificates awarded each year by the Technicians Certification Authority grew from 40 to 590. Full-time students at institutes increased from 221 in 1961 to 1,887 in 1971. The improved bursary system is likely to accelerate increases in these numbers and to promote the growth in the numbers of students in such fields as accountancy.

With the establishment of technical institutes in a growing number of provincial centres, the amount of vocational technical education provided by secondary schools is diminishing: the proportion in 1971 was estimated as less than 5% of the total.

Universities

As with technical institutes, rolls of universities have grown rapidly in recent years. The roll of full-time and part-time internal students rose from over 15,000 in 1961 to 34,000 in 1971. Over this period the number of full-time students has almost trebled and the fraction of the total enrolment they comprise has increased from a little over half to almost three quarters. Rolls over the next decade are likely to continue to rise but some of the influences mentioned earlier which are likely to contribute to an increase in technical institute rolls may also tend to slow down the growth of university

Figure 5: University Degrees Awarded, 1961 and 1971



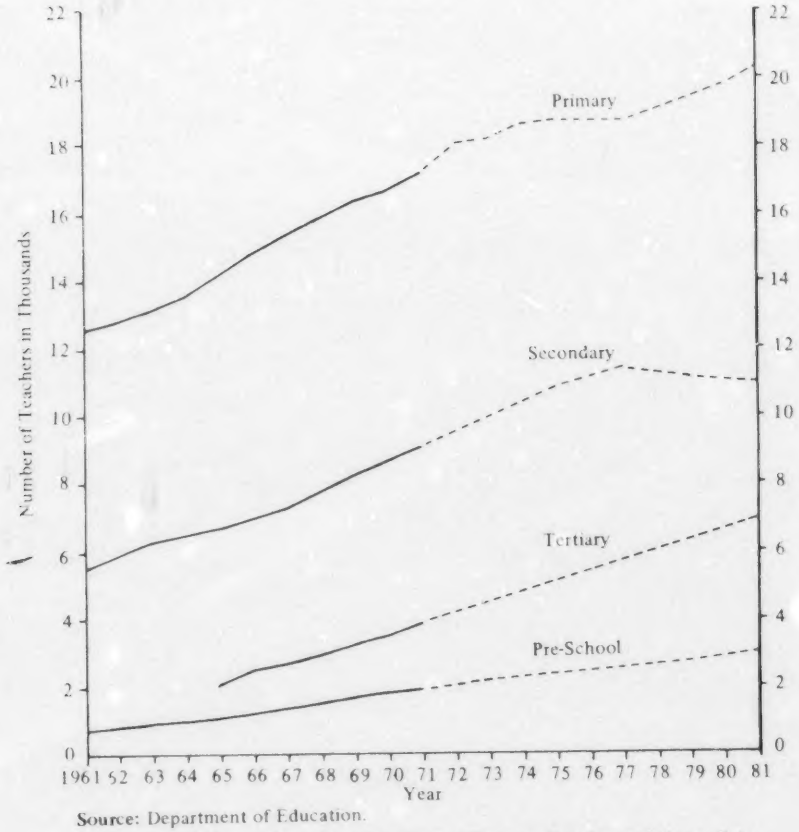
Source: Department of Education.

rolls. It is estimated that the number of equivalent full-time students in 1971 was 29,500, and in 1976 and 1981 could be 39,000 and 51,000 respectively.

The number of degrees awarded each year has increased at a faster rate than increases in the number of enrolments. Between 1961 and 1971 university rolls increased by 122%, but the number of first degrees awarded increased by 219% and the number of advanced degrees by 257%. First degrees in arts increased by 236%, science by 241%, commerce by 428%, and other bachelors degrees by 155%. In some faculties, such as medicine and veterinary science, entry is competitive and the intake controlled. By 1981, assuming the number of equivalent full-time students indicated above, the numbers of degrees awarded annually will show a substantial increase.

Figure 6: Teachers in State Primary and Secondary Schools, Universities, Teachers Colleges, Technical Institutes, Kindergartens and Play Centres. 1961-1981

Actual positions filled in equivalent full-time teachers. ——
Projected established positions in equivalent full-time teachers. - - - -



Source: Department of Education.

Notes:
1. The numbers of teachers shown above are based on existing policies and are related to the rolls shown in Figure 2.
2. Full details of the number of play centre staff are not available. It has been assumed that each play centre has one supervisor and one assistant supervisor.

Teachers

Increasing rolls and improvements in pupil-teacher ratios caused a steadily increasing demand for teachers in the last decade and this will continue into the next. The projections of teachers required, as shown in Figure 6, are based on present staffing ratios for pre-school and tertiary education, but take account of policies for improved staffing ratios now being introduced in primary and secondary schools.

State primary and secondary teachers constitute about 80% of the full-time teaching staff of all educational institutions. With the introduction of three-year teacher training for primary teachers each primary teachers college had a year in which it produced virtually no trained teachers. The additional trained teachers had to be recruited from sources other than teachers colleges. Married women provided the main source of the additional staff required.

Despite the estimated trough in primary school rolls in the 1970s, the demand for teachers will still increase steadily with the introduction of the 1:35 staffing schedules. It is estimated that between 1971 and 1981 3000 additional primary teachers will be required. In 1971, just over half of the teachers recruited to both primary and secondary teaching services came from sources other than teacher training courses. Virtually all the primary teachers recruited were certificated teachers while over 80% of the secondary teachers had previously had some teaching experience.

The projected growth in secondary rolls and the improvements in secondary staffing now being carried out will require about 11,300 equivalent full-time teachers in the peak year, 1977. This is an increase of about two thousand on the 1971 figure. The demand will drop by about 300 teachers by 1981 on present policies.

Teacher training

With all primary teachers colleges now conducting three-year training courses, with the approaching temporary decline in school rolls, and with the improved retention and return to teaching of trained married women teachers, a reduction in the intake quotas to teachers colleges to 2,100 is expected, and college rolls are likely to be relatively stable over the next few years.

From 1961 to 1971 the number of students enrolled for secondary teacher training grew from just over 2,200 to nearly 3,300. For 1972, recruitment to secondary teaching changed markedly with increased numbers of graduates and near-graduates applying for admission. There was also an improvement in the quality of applicants for studentships. Though it is too soon yet to be definite, it appears that with employment opportunities for graduates at their level of expectation being fewer than in the past, New Zealand may be changing from a period of shortage to one where the supply of potential secondary teachers may exceed the demand. But a shortage of teachers in certain subject areas, notably mathematics and science, has yet to be overcome. On present policies, intakes to secondary teacher training courses are expected to decline in the middle seventies with the approaching drop in school rolls.

Continuing education

Non-vocational education for students who have left school is provided by a variety of institutions and organisations through courses ranging from hobbies to academic subjects at university level. A 'course' may vary from a single seminar in the case of some university extension courses to a series of lectures over two years. In 1970 enrolments in such courses were approximately as follows:

Non-vocational courses in secondary schools and technical institutes ..	42,000
University extension	21,000
Workers' Educational Association ..	5,000
Countrywomen's Co-ordinating Committee	4,000

Expenditure on Education

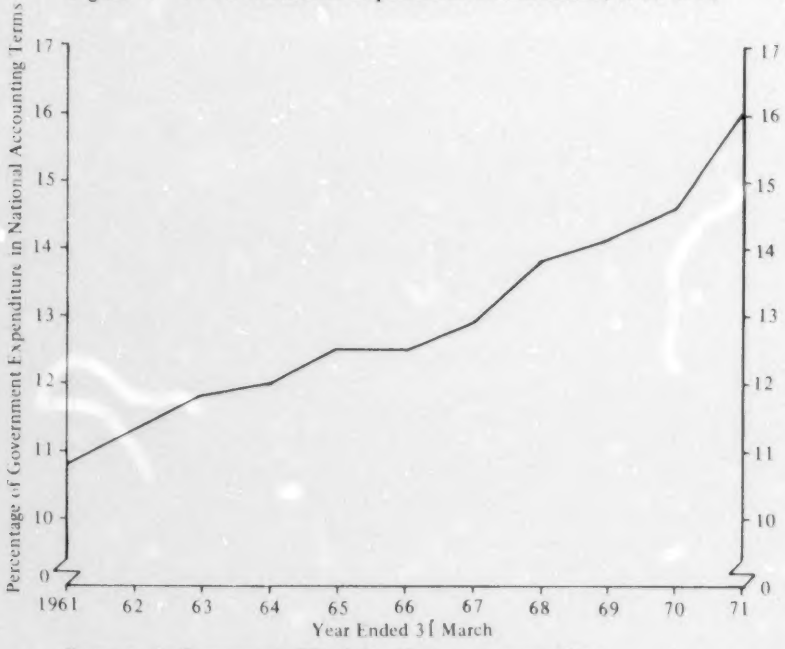
For the sake of consistency, the figures used in this section are based on the definition of education adopted by the Education, Training, and Research Committee of the National Development Conference, 1968–69, and on the methods used in deriving them. This definition, which excluded the Child Welfare Division, special schools, and the National Library has since been used by the Advisory Council on Educational Planning and the National Development Council. The figures published by the Department of Education in its annual reports include expenditure on these items and are therefore higher than those shown here.

The growth in pupil and student numbers has been the most important factor in causing the marked increase in Government expenditure on education. In 1960–61, net expenditure was $84.2m and in 1970–71, $257.2m. More important, while the fraction of national resources spent by Government has remained fairly stable at about one third over the past decade, Government expenditure on education has made increasing demands on those resources, as Figure 7 shows.

Another way of measuring expenditure on education is to relate it to the Gross National Product. The Education, Training, and Research Committee forecast that the percentage of G.N.P. devoted to education in 1972–73 and in 1978–79 would be 5.2%. This included some allowance for qualitative improvements.

In 1971, these forecasts were revised by the Advisory Council on Educational Planning on the basis of approved policies and the expected growth in the education system. Forecasts were also made for 1975–76 and 1981–82. The forecasts in Figure 8 are based on the 1971

Figure 7: Net Government Expenditure on Education, 1961-1971



Sources: 1. Department of Statistics: Government expenditure.
2. Department of Education: Education expenditure.

Note: Expenditure on education is as defined by the Education, Training, and Research Committee of the National Development Conference, 1968-9.

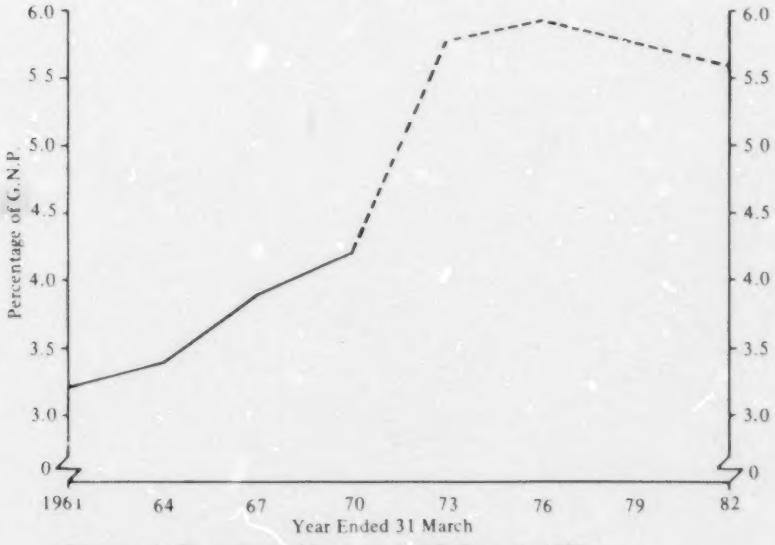
revision (in 1969–70 prices) and show that for both 1972–73 and 1978–79 the revised forecast percentage is 5.8%. With allowance made for the introduction of some further improvements up to 1975–76, the percentages of G.N.P. become as follows:

1972–73: 5.8% 1975–76: 6.1% 1978–79: 5.9% 1981–82: 5.7%.

A number of reservations must be made in connection with the revised forecast percentages of G.N.P. First, as stated above, those shown in Figure 8 represent the expenditure required to maintain policies in force in August 1971. They do not make allowance for any proposals that have not yet become policy such as, for example, further improvements in staffing ratios, or in teacher training, or in the provision of equipment to support changing curricula, nor do they take account of the recommendations of the Committee of Inquiry into Pre-School Education or the Committee of Inquiry into the Uses of Television in Education. Second, they include estimates of capital expenditure which can be influenced by factors as various as the state of the economy and prevailing weather conditions in any year. Third, they are sensitive to the accuracy of the roll projections upon which they are based. For instance, all of the pre-school and most of the primary school population projected for 1981 have yet to be born. Population estimates for years in advance could be 10% or more in error. Fourth, and perhaps most important, they are highly dependent on the accuracy of estimates of the growth of G.N.P. that are based on the 4.5% annual average growth rate of G.N.P. from 1972–73 to 1981–82 adopted by the National Development Conference in March 1972.

Figure 8: Government Expenditure on Education as a Percentage of G.N.P., 1961-1982

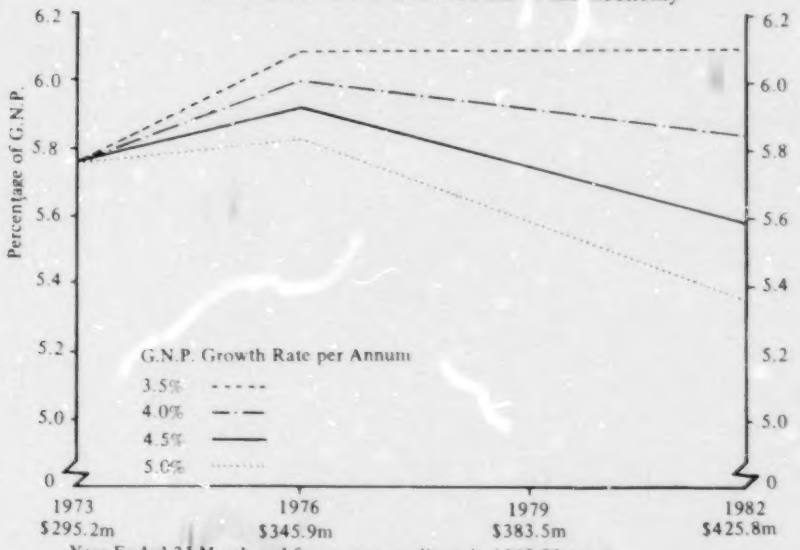
Actual: 1961-1970. Forecast: 1973-1982



Sources:
1. Department of Statistics: G.N.P. figures to 1970.
2. Department of Education: actual expenditure.
3. Advisory Council on Educational Planning: forecast expenditure.

Notes:
1. For definition of expenditure on education see Note to Figure 7.
2. The estimates of G.N.P. are derived from the Department of Statistics estimate of G.N.P. for 1970-1, annual growth rates of 1% and 3% for 1971-2 and 1972-3 respectively (N.Z.I.E.R. estimates) and a 4.5% average annual growth rate for each three year period to 1981-2.

Figure 9: Forecasts of Government Expenditure on Education as a Percentage of G.N.P., 1973 – 1982, on Different Assumptions for the Annual Growth Rate of the Economy



Year Ended 31 March and forecast expenditure in 1969-70 prices

Source: Advisory Council on Educational Planning: forecast expenditure.

Notes:
1. For definition of expenditure on education see Note to Figure 7.
2. The estimates of G.N.P. are derived from the Department of Statistics estimate of G.N.P. for 1970-1 and annual growth rates of 1% and 3% for 1971-2 and 1972-3 respectively (N.Z.I.E.R. estimates).

The assumed annual growth rate figure of 4.5% in real G.N.P. is somewhat higher than that achieved in recent years. In the ten years to 1967–68 the rate was 4.1%. Figure 9 shows the forecast expenditures on education as percentages of G.N.P. assuming four different annual growth rates of G.N.P. from 1972–73. It is clear that, given certain estimated expenditures on education such as those shown earlier, the proportion of national resources they represent would vary considerably, depending on the growth rate achieved in G.N.P. In 1981–82, for example, an estimated expenditure of $425.8m (1969–70 prices) would represent between 5.4% and 6.1% of G.N.P. according to which of the four growth rates used in the forecasts in Figure 9 is achieved. It is in this climate of uncertainty about the growth rate of the economy that educational planning must take place. Furthermore, the proportion of G.N.P. to be devoted to education must be determined in the light of competing claims on national economic resources from other sectors.

PART THREE

Policies and Issues

Pre-school education

A main objective of pre-school education is to work with parents in complementing and reinforcing experiences that children have at home—experiences that, it is now recognised, are basic to the full physical, emotional, social and intellectual development of children. Over the last decade, educational research and theory have emphasised the sheer volume and the importance for later development of the learning that children accomplish before the age of five. Young children learn through play. As the recent report of the Committee of Inquiry into Pre-School Education puts it: 'Through play the child explores, discovers, tries, proves and assimilates. Through play he expresses feelings, experiments with social relationships, develops skills, and acquires a wider use of language'. His first learning environment is the home. A pre-school group, with its specially planned space and equipment, with the regular association it provides with other children, and with the guidance and support given by trained adults, provides a systematic broadening of experience for children, regardless of their home background.

In this country, pre-school services are operated by voluntary organisations in partnership with the State. Over the years, close working relationships have been developed between the two major national bodies, the New Zealand Free Kindergarten Union and the New Zealand Play Centre Federation, and the Department of Education. The responsibility for establishing and running kindergartens and play centres is shared by local committees and the controlling associations to which they are affiliated. Standards of provision acceptable to the voluntary organisations and to the Department are determined by the Union or the Federation and the Department in consultation.

The Government's financial contribution to pre-school education now amounts to about $3 million a year. This covers the costs of: kindergarten teachers' training and salaries; the 2:1 government subsidies on the cost of kindergarten sites, buildings, and equipment, and of play centre buildings in high priority areas; and grants to play centres to help with the establishment and maintenance of centres, and for liaison between associations and their constituent centres. Professional and administrative help is provided by the Officer for Pre-School Education and a team of twelve pre-school advisers. The voluntary organisations, for their part, provide about $1.3 million a year for pre-school education, and the voluntary work of many thousands of parents and others.

During the last decade there has been a rapid growth in the field of pre-school education and this is expected to continue. This reflects the growing conviction among parents that kindergartens and play centres can make an important contribution to the intellectual and social development of young children. In New Zealand, nearly a half of all four year olds and a quarter of three year olds take part in pre-school education. These proportions are high by world standards. Nevertheless, we know that here, as elsewhere, the children who are in most need of pre-school education are often the ones who are least likely to receive it. It is against this background that the recent Committee of Inquiry into Pre-School Education carried out its task. The Committee was asked to review the present range of services and their availability to children under five years of age, with particular reference to children with special educational needs; the educational aims and programmes of various pre-school services; the types of training available for persons who conduct pre-school services; the administration of pre-school education; and State assistance to the various forms of pre-school education.

The main proposals of the Committee are:

That pre-school services, including full-time day care, should be steadily expanded so that they are available to all parents who want them, and that these services match the needs of children, including those of children with special educational needs.

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That development of the services should be based on the existing voluntary organisations working in a closer partnership with the Department of Education and with stronger professional and financial support from the Department.

That national and local administrative machinery be set up to co-ordinate the development of pre-school education.

That the training and qualifications of pre-school workers be improved, and that training programmes be integrated to a greater extent with the institutions responsible for teacher training.

Action along these lines would involve the development of a closer partnership between the voluntary organisations and the Department of Education, and increased professional, administrative and financial support from the Department.

Important among the issues in pre-school education are the following: How should the provision of pre-school educational services be related to the needs of children? How is a steady rate of expansion to be maintained as well as a steady improvement in the quality of the programme offered? What should be the nature and extent of the Department of Education's responsibility for educational programmes in day care centres? What further opportunities should there be in the pre-school system for parent education? What priority should be given to the improvement of pre-school education in comparison with further improvements to the first three years of primary schooling?

Primary and secondary education

The objective of primary and secondary education is to provide the best education possible for all girls and boys within the human and other resources that can be made available. During the last decade, the main developments of policy for the improvement of learning and teaching in primary and secondary schools have been as follows:

IMPROVED STAFFING. The staffing of schools has been improved in a variety of ways. There has been a steady reduction in the size of primary classes. The transition to the new staffing schedules based on a 1 : 35 ratio is planned to be completed by 1976. Additional teachers have been appointed to secondary schools so that in general sixth and seventh forms can be limited to 20 students. Further steps are being taken each year to achieve a progressive reduction in the size of Form 3–5 classes. The aim is to staff schools so that in general these classes need be no larger than 30. Other improvements in staffing have included the creating and upgrading of large numbers of positions of responsibility in primary, intermediate, and secondary schools, and increases in time allowances for deputy principals and senior assistant mistresses in secondary schools. Extra staff is provided for schools with a large proportion of Maori and other Polynesian pupils, for the introduction of special programmes for children with special needs, and for the appointment of guidance counsellors in selected secondary schools. A new scheme for the initial appointment of primary teachers has brought improved and more stable staffing, particularly in rural schools. The earlier general shortage of primary teachers has been largely overcome, although there are some districts which from time to time have difficulty in attracting suitable teachers. With improved recruitment and retention of teachers, staff shortages in secondary schools are being steadily reduced. In some subjects, such as mathematics and science, accounting, economics, art, and music, there are still staffing deficiencies. The salaries of primary and secondary teachers have recently been revalued, and there are indications that this revaluation is contributing to the improved recruitment and retention of teachers.

TEACHER TRAINING. There has been a comprehensive reorganisation of the initial training of primary and secondary teachers. It has included the extension of the primary course of training to three years and the expansion and reorganisation of courses of secondary teacher training. Associated with these developments there have been major improvements in staffing, buildings, equipment, and the financing of teachers colleges. Important new links are being developed between teachers colleges and universities. The further training of teachers has been developed in a variety of ways. Two residential in-service training centres have been established, and most education boards now have in-service training facilities. There has been a notable increase in courses for which teachers can be released from their classroom duties. Most of these courses have been short—up to five days—but some have lasted up to six weeks. Special regulations allow for evening classes for teachers of up to twenty sessions for each course. Advanced courses for teachers are run on a national basis through the Correspondence School, and examined with assistance from university teachers. Selected teachers are given leave with pay to complete university degrees. All universities now offer teaching fellowships which enable teachers to spend an academic year as a full-time member of a university department. The Teachers Refresher Course Committee provides residential courses for teachers during school holidays.

SUPPORTING SERVICES. The Department supports the work of teachers through professional leadership and the provision of teaching resources. The role of the inspectorate is increasingly seen as one of providing specialist advice and guidance to principals and teachers. Advisory services which were initially developed for primary schools are beginning to be extended to secondary schools. The work of the School Publications Branch, at first confined to journals and bulletins for pupils, has been broadened to include a wide range of handbooks and manuals for teachers. The School Library Service lends books to teachers and classes, publishes lists of books recommended for purchase, and has organising librarians who make visits to schools. The National Film Library lends films, and in addition runs a tape duplicating service and a gramophone record library. To its basic re-

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source of silent filmstrips the Visual Production Unit has now added sound filmstrips, overhead projector transparencies, wall charts, and pictures. The Report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Uses of Television in Education has recommended that the Department's resources for acquiring, producing and distributing audio-visual media be strengthened and developed. The New Zealand Council for Educational Research, at the request of the Department, is developing a series of standardised tests of attainment. Tests of reading and listening comprehension have already been prepared for use in primary and secondary schools.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT. The basic aim of policy is to provide continuity in the curriculum from the infant room to Form seven and to provide a curriculum that is appropriate to the age, abilities, aptitudes and aspirations—and therefore the differing needs—of each young person in the schools. Following the recommendations of the Commission on Education, 1962, the Department's ability to promote curriculum change has been increased by the establishment of the Curriculum Development Unit. The functions of the unit include: the preparation, co-ordination and revision of syllabuses from the infant department to Form seven; the provision of guides, handbooks and resource materials for teachers to accompany syllabuses and to assist in their interpretation and implementation; the initiation and evaluation of pilot schemes in order to test new courses and methods under classroom conditions; and the promotion and use of a wide range of resources including audio-visual media, school libraries and new teaching techniques. Curriculum development is carried out progressively and there is close consultation with teachers in State and private schools. Teachers are, as a matter of policy, represented on all revision

committees. When changes in the curriculum are being considered, careful attention is given to the extent to which teachers should be asked to adapt to further changes. The developing needs of young people, the current state of knowledge and of ways of teaching it are also carefully weighed.

Following the recommendations of the Commission on Education, particular emphasis has been placed on providing continuity in the curriculum between primary and secondary schools. Since the revision of the primary school English and social studies syllabuses in 1961, major syllabus revisions have been completed in mathematics from infants to Form 7, and in science from Form 1 to 7. The music syllabus from infants to Form 2 has been revised and programmes in creative drama from Form 1 to 4 are being developed in the schools based on a teachers' handbook. A supplement on the teaching of reading in the primary school has been produced. Linkage schemes have been established in selected primary, intermediate and secondary schools to provide a continuity in the teaching of Maori and French. Revisions are well under way in English from Form 3 to 5, and in social studies from Form 1 to 5. Subjects of the curriculum under review at present include music from Form 3 to 5; art and crafts from Form 1 to 5; science from infants to Standard 4. Alternative courses in mathematics are being considered for students for whom the School Certificate or University Entrance prescriptions are inappropriate.

The Department is associated with the School Certificate Examination Board and the Universities Entrance Board in ensuring that the public examinations reflect changes and new developments in teaching programmes. Most prescriptions for these examinations have been changed over the past ten years and many new subjects have been added.

Considerable changes in the interpretation of existing syllabuses have occurred over the past few years. These have been facilitated by the many trials, experiments, handbooks and other support materials that have been developed by the Department. In the field of curriculum development generally, greater emphasis is now being given to evaluating the effectiveness of curriculum revision and this trend will continue. Curriculum objectives are being stated more specifically.

CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS. There is now within the public system a comprehensive range of services and special forms of assistance for children with handicaps and educational deficiencies. One teacher in every 25 is employed full-time in a special class or school, or in advisory or guidance services for children with special educational needs. Wherever possible, additional forms of assistance are provided without removing children permanently from the companionship of their peers and the normal programme of the classroom. In the case of rural children, the main emphasis has been on the improvement of the quality of the education that can be made available in schools that are within daily reach of children. In the field of special education every effort is made to assist children with handicaps to learn effectively in ordinary classrooms. With Maori children and Pacific Islands children living in New Zealand who may require special help, the aim is to add to the resources available in the local school so that the principal and his staff can meet their educational needs without attracting undue attention to any problems they may have. Special teaching arrangements can be made within school programmes, and part-time classes are established out of school hours, to provide additional teaching for gifted children.

Some children are too remote, others have handicaps that are too severe, to enable them to attend a local school. There are special provisions for such children: boarding bursaries, hostels, and the comprehensive educational service provided by the Correspondence School; special schools for blind, deaf, backward, and emotionally disturbed children; and a wide range of advisory and guidance services. In the expansion and development of its provision for children requiring special education, the Department works in close consultation with a number of voluntary bodies and with the Departments of Health and Social Welfare. In the education of rural children, special attention has been given in recent years to improvements in the supply of teachers, to boarding allowances, and to the ways of strengthening rural schools from Form 1 upwards. The statement of policy, made last November, for the reorganisation of education from Form 1 upwards in rural areas is important in this connection. On matters of policy con-

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cerning the education of Maori children the Minister is advised by the National Advisory Committee on Maori Education. In 1970 that Committee reported to the Minister on priorities in Maori education and made a number of recommendations for the extension of existing policies and the introduction of new ones. These recommendations have been considered by the Department and the various other bodies to which they were addressed and most of them are now under action. Progress is being sought on a broad front in relation to three interrelated aims: a greater understanding of Maori culture, including the Maori language, by all school children and their teachers; a better understanding by teachers of the ways by which they can help Maori boys and girls to come to terms with—and make their own distinctive contribution to—schools which they may well perceive as pakeha institutions; and a further development of the resources and professional skills needed to help Maori children to overcome any educational deficiencies that they may have. Many groups and individuals are devoting a great deal of dedicated effort to the improvement of the life-chances of Maori and other Polynesian children through education. There are heartening signs of progress. All, however, who are responsible for the education of such children know that there is still much to be done.

BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT. New buildings codes have recently been approved for primary, secondary and intermediate schools. Under these codes, schools are now being designed, built, and where necessary, remodelled so that it is possible for teachers to introduce new forms of class and school organisation. Small and large groups of pupils, and sometimes teams of teachers and other school staff, can be combined in various ways for particular teaching purposes. New types of learning materials are available, especially for

individual study. A new equipment scheme for primary schools was introduced this year. The Department now supplies a wide range of items for the classroom and for the school generally, and will be accepting reponsibility for their maintenance and replacement.

The following are the main issues in primary and secondary education as the Department sees them:

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES FOR BETTER EDUCATION. Improvements in the quality of education are sought by increasing the number of teachers and related professional and supporting services available to each educational unit, by raising the professional competence of teachers, by adding to the teaching materials available to them, by up-grading the accommodation in the schools where they teach, and by helping parents to understand what teachers are trying to do for their children. Most proposals for improved education include all of these items. All are without question desirable. All are, however, in competition—not only with each other, but with improvements in the provision of other services to the public which also have claims to additional resources of trained manpower, capital works and current expenditure. Within the field of education itself, what priority should be given to further improvements in the educational provision for boys and girls of primary and secondary school age compared with that for children of pre-school age, for 'short-stay' secondary students who have left school without a recognised leaving qualification, or for adults who are at present not being reached by agencies of continuing education? And if additional teachers are to be made available for primary and secondary education, what priority should be given to: improvements in the teacher-pupil ratio; improved professional support in the form of psychologists, guidance counsellors, librarians, and subject and other specialist advisers; increased ancillary staff; and to an expansion and intensification of advanced courses of study for teachers in service? Similar questions are raised by the recommendations of the Committee of Inquiry into the Uses of Television in Education, which include proposals for the introduction of broadcast television into primary and secondary schools. In making these recommendations, the Committee was aware that they would have to compete with other desirable improvements in the teaching materials that can be made available to teachers. What priority, if any, should be given to the introduction of broadcast television?

THE PACE OF CHANGE. The days have long since passed when chalk and talk made a teacher, and when teachers could assume that the subject matter of the curriculum would remain relatively unchanged over long periods. Change is a keynote in teaching as in other professions—change in the objectives to be sought, the curricula to be followed, and in the methods and supporting teaching materials to be used. During the last decade the Department and the teaching profession have been successful in fostering new approaches to teaching and learning over a broad front. Generally speaking, we have been more successful in promoting change than we have been in disseminating the results of change to all teachers whose work should reflect them. The task is now one of achieving a balance: of encouraging creative teachers who have ideas for doing things differently and doing them better; and of maintaining the confidence of other teachers who, though by no means resistant to new ideas, may be inclined to think that change does not of itself guarantee progress and that too many changes at once can lead to confusion as readily as to improvements. It is a question, too, of ensuring that teachers are fully informed of the objectives of new curricula, have opportunities to keep their specialised knowledge up to date, are provided with the facilities, publications and teaching equipment needed to support new approaches, and have regular opportunities to exchange views and seek advice and guidance from professional leaders in their field. In practical terms the issue is one of the resources that can be made available and the ways they can be deployed to ensure that the 25,000 or more members of the teaching profession are given regular opportunities for refreshment and retraining. What, for example, should be the responsibilities of the teachers colleges, the universities, the teachers' organisations, and the Department, and what arrangements might be made to ensure co-ordination of effort among them? What should be the role of district in-service

centres in the process of bringing about change and improvement in the work of the schools?

TRAINING FOR LEADERSHIP. There has been a pleasing and in many ways impressive increase in the range and number of opportunities that can be made available to teachers to add to their professional knowledge and expertise. The chief means of in-service training has, however, been short courses in one form or another. There is a need for the development of longer courses of greater substance to prepare teachers for new or increased professional responsibilities—courses lasting one term, two terms, or a year. Particular fields in which such courses are needed are: the induction of principals of large primary, intermediate, and secondary schools; holders of positions of responsibility in primary, intermediate, and secondary schools; the teaching of English to Maori and other Polynesian children; guidance counselling; teachers of pupils requiring special education in one of its forms; intermediate teachers with defined subject responsibilities; and teachers generally whose formal qualifications need to be strengthened and refreshed.

RESEARCH AND EVALUATION. Through the inspectorate, the Curriculum Development Unit, and its various advisory services, the Department is able, as far as resources permit, to evaluate various aspects of educational practice as a normal part of its professional responsibility towards the education system. The New Zealand Council for Educational Research has the specific responsibility of fostering and undertaking educational research. The university departments of education and, more recently, the teachers colleges are contributing to educational research in the New Zealand setting. The Government has recently broken new ground by including a provision for research as part of new developments that have been approved. The recent decision to include a research evaluation as part of the pilot scheme for extended apprentice training is one example. The inclusion of research and development as a function of the tutor training unit to be set up for the training of technical institute tutors is another. But these issues calling for careful research and evaluation far exceed the number of trained research workers who can be made available to work on them. A policy for educational research is needed: one that delineates the responsibilities of the various bodies concerned and proposes arrangements for the setting of priorities, the co-ordination of effort, the provision of funds, and the training of more research workers.

SCHOOL ORGANISATION. Primary and secondary teachers are heirs to different traditions in the organisation of schools and classes. The primary tradition is that of the general classroom teacher, the secondary that of the subject specialist. But important changes are now taking place in both branches of the teaching service. There is a growing tendency among teachers at all levels to plan and teach courses together so that the strengths of each teacher can be used to best effect with the greatest number of pupils. In primary and intermediate schools, these arrangements encourage teachers to develop a degree of specialisation: in secondary schools they provide an antidote to specialisation. They have important consequences for the planning of school buildings, the training and deployment of teachers, and the organisation of schools, particularly large ones. They are important in themselves for the opportunities they provide for teachers, in planning and teaching together, to think creatively about their common professional task and to learn from each other. The further development of exploratory forms of class and school organisation should be a matter of continuing interest during the decade.

Schools exist to enable children and young people to enjoy a rich, balanced education while they have the status of pupils. One consequence of the tendency for pupils to stay longer at secondary school has been to call into question the appropriateness of pupil status for young people in senior forms. Many secondary schools are finding ways of giving a measure of student status to senior forms. There is also a growing tendency for schools to develop forms of organisation and improved methods of communication so that pupils at all levels are able to take some part in the making of decisions that affect them as members of a school community.

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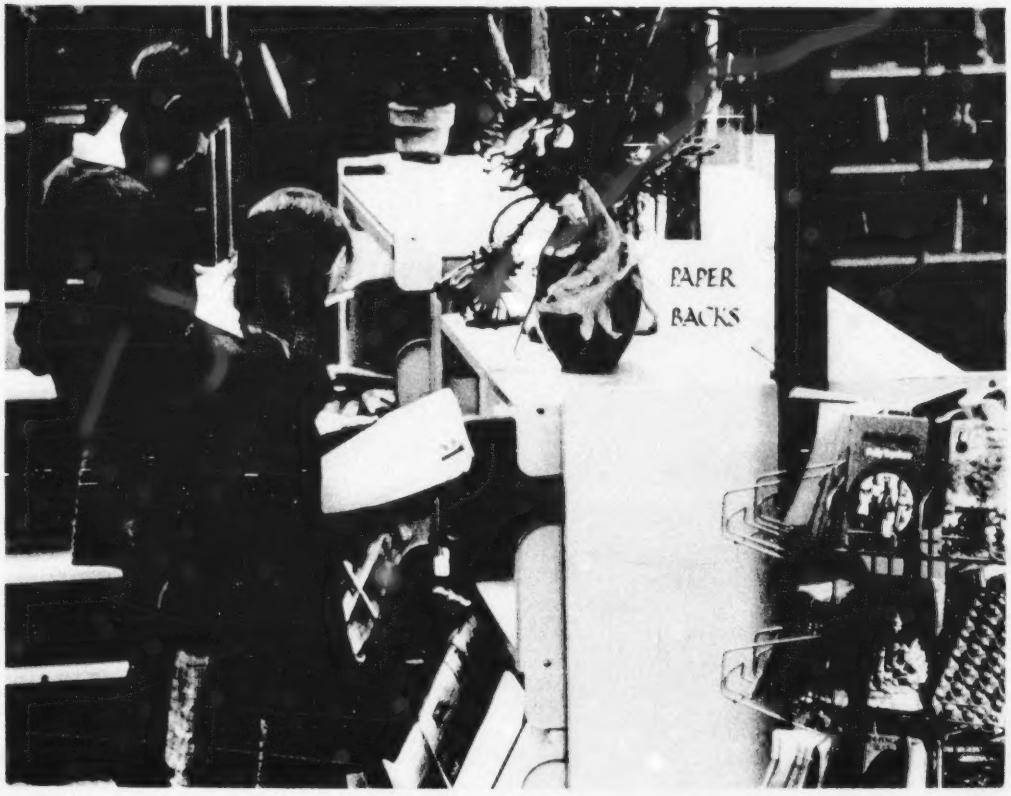


LIBRARY RESOURCES. The development of libraries in secondary schools has been an achievement of the last decade or so. The recent approval of a policy for the provision of central library rooms in primary schools and for increased library and text book grants set the stage for the development of efficiently organised libraries in these schools. The concept of a school library is also changing. In addition to books and periodicals there are also, in increasing numbers, filmstrips, audio-tapes, slide-tapes, video-tapes, filmloops, and transparencies, which may be used on their own or in various combinations. These have to be stored, catalogued, and kept available for use by teachers and students. It is important that at all levels of the system the schools' resources of books and audio-visual materials are exploited to the full. Stronger advisory services are also needed to assist schools in developing fully effective libraries.

GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING. A praiseworthy feature of the teaching profession in New Zealand is its tradition of concern for the personal development of each young person as an individual. It is apparent in primary and intermediate schools in the knowledge and understanding that teachers typically have of each child in their classes. In secondary schools the form teacher has been the member of staff who has been the personal link between the school as an institution and each student. In the changing secondary school it has become necessary to review the nature of the school's responsibility towards the personal concerns of its students and the ways by which its responsibilities can best be carried out. The Department recently set up a working party to study the arrangements for guidance in secondary schools. The report of this working party has been widely discussed and there is general agreement on the lines of further development.

CHANGING THE CURRICULUM. The school curriculum at all levels has been under active review and development during the last decade. Most of this activity has taken the existing structure of the curriculum as its starting point. The main emphasis has been on the updating of specific syllabuses and on more effective co-ordination at all levels within subjects and among the various subjects that comprise the curriculum. Until fairly recently there were few indications that the structure of the curriculum should itself be reviewed. There appears to be general agreement on the objectives to be sought during the years of primary schooling, the subjects that should form the curriculum, the balance to be struck between them, and the distinctive contribution that each should make to the education of boys and girls. It is in the secondary field that the shape and balance of the curriculum as a whole is beginning to be questioned. The Post-Primary Teachers' Association took an important initiative when it published *Education in Change* and, in so doing, invited secondary teachers to think afresh about the purposes of secondary education at the present time. Last year the Department held a conference at Lopdell House to initiate a review of the secondary curriculum. A booklet *The Secondary School Curriculum: Some Issues and Prospects*, has since been published and distributed widely to stimulate further discussion. A further conference is to be held later in the year to consider comments that have been received by the Department on this booklet and to take up further the issues raised in it. These are the early stages of a process of consultation that could well end in a reshaped secondary curriculum. The discussion has so far been largely confined to the teaching profession. The questions at issue are, however, of wide public interest and further opportunities will need to be provided for members of the wider community to make their views known. No issue in secondary education is more important at the present time.

EXAMINATIONS AND INTERNAL ASSESSMENT. The functions of public examinations and their effects upon the work of secondary schools are at present the subject of lively discussion. There are several points at issue. With more students staying longer at secondary schools, sixth forms are changing their character. This has led to a reconsideration of University Entrance as an appropriate goal for sixth formers. In 1969, the Department introduced the Sixth Form Certificate with 'the intention that it should signify the completion of a course of sixth form studies at acceptable standards of performance. In 1970, the Universities Entrance Board took a useful initiative when it published the report of a working party that it had earlier set up to study university entrance. In the subsequent discussions, further developments of University Entrance and the Sixth Form Certificate have been considered in relation to each other. It is the policy of the Universities Entrance Board, which has a statutory responsibility to maintain a national standard for admission to the New Zealand universities, to seek ways of reducing any adverse influence that the University Entrance examination may have on the courses of study of sixth formers for whom it is not a suitable educational goal. The Department and the Universities Entrance Board are exploring the possibility of merging the two separate awards of University Entrance and the Sixth Form Certificate. There is a strong presumption in favour of an extension, under workable safeguards, of the policy of accrediting by principals on the basis of the school's own assessment of each student's attainments. There are, however, a number of issues to be resolved, the most important and the most difficult of which is the development of means by which schools would be able to compare the achievements of sixth formers in relation to known national standards.

There is also the related question of the future of the School Certificate Examination. The change in 1968 to single subject passes as the basis of this award has enabled it to become a somewhat more flexible examining instrument. Coinciding with this change there has been mounting criticism by secondary teachers and others of the policy of awarding the School Certificate by external examination. The case against external examination is by no means new: it was argued by some of the members of the Thomas Committee whose report provided the ground plan for developments in secondary education since 1945. Now, however, there are fewer defenders of external examinations. There is, moreover, a strong trend in other countries towards the replacement of external examinations by some form of internal assessment by

teachers. The experience of some of those countries, however, strongly suggests that sharp transitions from external examinations to internal assessment are unwise. In the interests of individuals, common standards must be maintained as far as possible between schools, and between schools from year to year to assist teachers in the ranking of their students. Teachers must be prepared for the additional responsibilities associated with internal assessment.

Some useful work has already been done on some of these matters. The New Zealand Council for Educational Research is undertaking research into examinations and forms of assessment in fifth and sixth forms. The Department, through various projects for curriculum development, is focussing attention on the ways by which classroom teachers at all levels can themselves assess the effectiveness of their teaching in relation to the curricular objectives they are seeking. The School Certificate Examination Board is about to publish a discussion paper on internal assessment and School Certificate. A policy of moving progressively towards a national qualification at this level awarded on the basis of internal asessment would require a large commitment to further research, development, and the training of teachers in techniques of testing and evaluation suitable to internal assessment.

Tertiary education

Education at the tertiary level comprises a wide range of courses which differ markedly in their qualifications for admission, their length and organisation, and the qualifications that they lead to. At one end of the range are the work-related courses of technical education that apprentices are required to take as part of their contract; and at the other end are courses which may have no direct vocational or even practical application but which are significant in the further education of persons undertaking them. The general aim of policy is to provide at the tertiary level a sufficient range of courses to meet the educational and training needs of all who are qualified to take them and wish to do so. A related aim is to develop guidance services and forms of bursary assistance that will enable qualified school leavers to undertake courses of tertiary education of a type and in an institution that seems best suited to their aptitudes and vocational interests.

EXPANSION. During the last decade there has been a vast expansion of tertiary education. Universities, technical institutes and teachers colleges have added greatly to their numbers and to the depth and diversity of their courses. Further expansion is planned for the coming decade. The rate of growth of the technical institutes is expected to be greater than that of the universities, whose rates of growth are expected to be markedly lower than they were during the sixties. Within the institutes, the greatest increases are expected to be in senior courses (see Figure 4). On existing policies, the rate of growth of the teachers colleges will be slow by comparison with technical institutes or universities.

To cope with the expected increases in enrolments, a seventh university is now being planned, and there will be further additions to the accommodation of all existing universities. Additional technical institutes are planned for Auckland and Wellington and for Hawkes Bay, Rotorua and, somewhat later, for Tauranga, Whangarei, and Timaru. All existing technical institutes are being planned for further growth. The expansion and rebuilding of the teachers colleges is planned for completion this decade.

DIVERSIFICATION. Accompanying this further planned expansion, there will be further diversification of the courses provided in universities and technical institutes. These already include medicine, dentistry, engineering, architecture, law, commerce, management and administration, various branches of agriculture, horticultural science, forestry science, veterinary science, home science, theology, food and bio-technology, pharmacy, education, music, and fine arts. In some cases, these developments may take the form of new degrees and post-graduate diplomas. It can be expected, too, that new types of post-graduate diploma will be developed for the purpose of providing a vocational addition to first-degree courses in arts and sciences. Canterbury, for example, has built a two-year course in economics on to appropriate first degrees. Similar developments of post-graduate vocational diplomas are possible in other fields. Nor need they be limited

to the universities. In some fields, depending on their specialised teaching and accommodation, technical institutes could develop similar diplomas for university graduates. At the undergraduate level, some consideration is already being given to the inclusion within general degree courses of credits gained outside the university by professional and vocational work. In the technical institutes, the main stress will be on the extension and diversification of trade and technician courses, the introduction, where it appears justified, of courses beyond the level of the New Zealand Certificates, and the transfer to the technical institute sector of courses of vocational education and training which are at present the responsibility of various employing agencies. Opportunities exist for students to transfer from technical institutes to universities, and vice versa, and to be given exemptions and cross-credits related to the academic awards of the institution to which they are transferring.

LIAISON. During the last few years there has been a pleasing development at the local level of closer working relationships between universities and technical institutes and between universities and teachers colleges. The nature and extent of this liaison varies from one centre to another. A working party of the Advisory Council on Educational Planning recently reported on university - technical institute relationships and made proposals for further development. A question to be considered is whether further developments in tertiary education should be sought within the existing institutional framework or whether changes are needed in the framework itself.

ROLE OF UNIVERSITIES. The universities have as a major function the production of specific sorts of trained people to supply the needs of the community, that is, a vocational function. Some of those who have argued for more 'relevance' in university teaching would make this an almost exclusive function and, further, give the very highest priority, in research as well as teaching, to those activities likely to make the biggest contributions to material welfare and economic growth. To those who continue to accept in some form the traditional conception of a 'liberal' or 'general' education this is too narrow a view. The first task of a university as a teaching institution, some would say, is to help to produce educated people, people with a humane sense of values, a wide intellectual horizon, and alert, informed, and inquiring minds. This is not necessarily to put the liberal and the vocational into complete opposition. On the contrary, many recognise that vocational education can be given in a liberal spirit and, at least to a point, achieve the ends just mentioned. What is argued is that there is a highly important place in the university for studies that are not directly or specifically vocational. Some would argue further that in many cases the liberally trained mind is in the long run, if not immediately, more valuable to employers than specific competence in the job to be done. Likewise with research, strong claims are made for some fundamental research which may or may not turn out to be of direct material value.

ROLE OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTES. With the development of the technical institutes, the question of the proper scope of university studies arises in a new context. In the past, the universities undertook some forms of vocational training simply because there was no other institution to develop them. In many cases today there is a choice. In assessing the demand for new types of courses and in deciding upon the best ways of meeting the demands, the Department of Education and the University Grants Committee consult closely with each other, and, as appropriate, with the Advisory Council on Educational Planning, the Vocational Training Council, the Technicians Certification Authority, and with a wide range of employers, employees and professional groups. The report of the working party set up by the Advisory Council on Educational Planning which studied technical and industrial academic awards has recommendations on possible developments of advanced courses in technical education. The main questions raised in this report and in discussions relating to it are: What should be the content, length and standard of courses that might be developed on top of the New Zealand Certificates? What should be their academic standing in relation to first degrees awarded by universities? Under whose authority should they be awarded? What priority should be given to such developments in technical education?

CONTROL. Arrangements for the control, administration and accountability of universities, technical institutes, and teachers colleges have changed markedly during the last decade. The changes in the university system date from the dissolution of the University of New Zealand and the establishment, under the Universities Act 1961, of the University Grants Committee and the autonomous universities. The establishment of technical institute councils has been part of the development of technical education as a form of tertiary education. The teachers colleges have been transferred from the control of district education boards to control by teachers college councils.

In very large measure, each university is an independent, self-governing institution which awards its own degrees, makes its own appointments, decides what shall be taught and how it shall be taught, and is free to use its resources, financial and otherwise, in the ways it thinks best. Each has a complex system of internal government in which powers of various kinds are vested, often by convention rather than by law, in a council (the governing body), a vice-chancellor and other officers, a professional board or senate, faculties, departments, and numerous committees set up for particular purposes.

The freedom of the universities to teach what they like is limited by an obligation to submit their proposed course regulations to the Curriculum Committee, which comprises representatives of all the universities, the Chairman of the University Grants Committee, and the Director-General of Education. In practice, objection is rarely taken to the proposed regulations. Much more important is the requirement that councils submit to the University Grants Committee for approval any academic development which may lead to a request to the University Grants Committee for a special grant to support the development or any extension of it. This means that a council is not free to begin setting up a major new professional school for which additional finance is or will be required. The approval of the Grants Committee and the Government is required. Likewise, there is Government control of academic staff salary levels, exercised after consideration of the recommendations of a University Salaries Committee set up by the Grants Committee.

The main duty of the University Grants Committee is to advise both the universities and the Government. After considering submissions from the universities, it negotiates with the Government the quinquennial recurrent grants, which, supplemented by income from students' fees and endowments, are used to meet their running expenses such as salaries and wages, equipment and materials, maintenance of buildings and grounds, and the purchase of books and periodicals. The University Grants Committee likewise negotiates with the Government the specific non-recurrent grants for buildings, land purchase, and furniture and equipment. The system is designed to reconcile as far as possible the legitimate claims of autonomy with the need for balanced development of university education as a whole and for the necessary financial controls.

The controlling authorities of the institutes have been given the greatest measure of autonomy that, in the view of the Department, is compatible with the balanced, orderly and economical development of technical education as a whole. There have been some claims for more autonomy, for example, the introduction of a block grant system for running expenses similar to that operating with the universities. The question is how far, if at all, such claims can be justified. A working party of representatives of the Technical Institutes Association and officers of the Department was recently set up to study levels of authority within the system of technical education.

The Department, the chairmen of the teachers college councils and the principals of teachers colleges are at present reviewing their initial experience of the operation of teachers college councils. Various proposals are under consideration for administrative liaison and for consultation on matters of policy in the education and training of teachers.

ADMISSION TO UNIVERSITIES. One of the main issues of public discussion in tertiary education is: who should go to university and under what terms? New Zealand has a tradition of 'open entry', endorsed in effect if not explicitly by successive Governments. Entry is 'open' in two senses. In the first place, qualified applicants are by statute entitled to admission, except that individual universities may impose restrictions to the entry to particular faculties

or departments on the grounds of insufficiency of accommodation or teachers. In practice, limitation of entry has been mainly confined to some of the professional schools, such as medicine and veterinary science. The University of Auckland, it is true, is approaching a maximum size, and is therefore starting to introduce a more general restriction, but this does not conflict with the principle of open entry to the university since qualified applicants are entitled to enrol elsewhere. New Zealand has never adopted the policy, quite common in other countries, of a fixed number of places overall, with competition for them among qualified applicants. In the second place, entry if 'open' in the sense that the minimum academic standard for admission, though quite exacting in the demands it makes, is less rigorous than in some systems abroad; that the universities may grant provisional admission to applicants over 21 years of age who lack the ordinary entrance qualification; that unmatriculated students may be admitted to the courses for certain undergraduate diplomas; and that the need for provision for part-time and extramural students has always been recognised. The academic requirements for admission to a university are determined by a statutory body, the Universities Entrance Board, whose members are appointed from the State and private secondary schools and the Department of Education as well as the universities.

Our New Zealand policy of 'open entry' gives wide scope to the aspirations of the individual and at the same time clearly serves very many of our national needs. However, what the individual would wish to do is not always consistent with what is judged to be the national interest. The limits placed on the numbers of students able to gain entry to professional schools such as medicine have already been mentioned. The capital and running costs for such schools are very high, and, under present policies, proposals for expanding them or creating new ones are not supported unless it can be shown that there is an urgent national need for more of the particular kinds of professional people who would be trained. In such cases, therefore, the national interest takes priority over the career aspirations of the individual, who may be denied a place in the faculty of his choice even though his record indicates that if admitted he could have completed the course successfully.

With the more general faculties of arts and science, on the other hand, courses are usually provided to meet the needs of individuals. The vocational ambitions of the students may be quite as clear-cut as those of students in the professional schools just mentioned, but they are often much less so, partly because, particularly in arts, the courses are more general, and in varying degrees relevant to a wide range of occupations. Thus a balance is struck between the claims of the individual and the national interest. Is it the right balance?

TECHNICAL INSTITUTE STUDENTS. Another issue at present attracting attention is whether technical institute students are treated equitably in comparison with university students. Opportunities for full-time study are increasing in technical institutes but there are marked differences between institutes and universities in the point at which students transfer from secondary school, the structure of the courses they follow, and the extent to which full-time study is desirable or available. So long as the emphasis on concurrent work-experience remains a feature of policy in the development of technical education, these differences are likely to remain. The allowances payable under the Technical Institute Bursaries regulations are the same as those payable to university students at a comparable level. Any financial margins favour students transferring from secondary schools to technical institutes on the completion of their sixth form year. This is a deliberate act of policy and is intended to encourage students planning a course of full-time study in a technical institute to leave secondary school at the end of the sixth form instead of returning to it for a seventh form year.

The Department is at present considering the extent to which technical institute students are as well provided as university students with Government assistance for library facilities, student union facilities, hostels, and student health services.

TRADE TRAINING. Since the National Development Conference there has been much discussion on the effectiveness of the existing arrangements for the theoretical and practical

training of apprentices. This has been associated with a study undertaken by the Vocational Training Council into the apprenticeship system itself and possible alternatives. Pilot schemes have been set up this year for two of the major trades—carpentry and fitting and turning—which extend the period of training in the institutes for first-year apprentices from three weeks to eighteen weeks, and pilot schemes for other trades are being planned. If the schemes are judged to be successful and are supported by industry, questions will arise about their adoption as a permanent measure in these and other trades, and about how far, if at all, employers should bear the cost of the additional training. Any wide extension of schemes of this kind would be a major undertaking, requiring a very large capital outlay for additional accommodation and equipment, and substantial increases in running expenses, chiefly for additional teaching staff.

INDUSTRY TRAINING BOARDS. The Vocational Training Council has given priority in its activities to the creation of means by which industry can itself identify its own needs for further vocational training. Some 25 industry training boards have been established. Each board includes representatives of employer and employee interests and, with Government financial assistance, most have appointed full-time training officers or are doing so. Already these industry training boards have identified training needs which in many cases were not previously recognised. These range from short courses of skill-training which can be handled within industry itself to refresher courses for tradesmen, technicians, supervisors, and managers at various levels. Close links are being established between industry training boards and the technical institutes, which will provide most of the vocational training that cannot be provided within the industries themselves.

A growing awareness of the importance of management education has emerged from the work of the Vocational Training Council and the industry training boards. The Vocational Training Council is now engaged in a review of the courses in management at present taught in universities and technical institutes and examined by various bodies.

Continuing education

The main concern in New Zealand, as in most countries during the last quarter of a century, has been with the provision of educational opportunities for those with aptitude for formal educational qualifications at various levels. But there are also those who for many reasons leave school early and enter the adult world without recognised qualifications. There is, as well, a growing awareness that education is becoming, for all members of modern communities, a never-ending process. There are signs in many places of renewed interest in the nature and extent of educational and training opportunities for members of the community after they have ceased to be full-time pupils or students. The Cultural Council of the National Development Council has a working party studying out-of-school education. The National Commission for UNESCO has had a committee studying life-long education. The National Council of Adult Education recently published the report of a working party which it had earlier set up to study Maori adult education.

Within the education system, responsibility for the provision of further education for those who have left school is shared by the universities, the technical institutes, the secondary schools, and in a few places, community centres. The universities contribute in two ways: they grant provisional admission to degree courses to adults who are not otherwise qualified to matriculate; and their departments of university extension offer the general public, and in particular the professions, an increasing number of courses in subjects taught by university teachers. The technical institutes are gaining experience in the conduct of courses for adults, particularly women, who need a period of re-orientation and some refurbishment of qualifications in preparation for further employment. The institutes, as a matter of Departmental policy, are for the most part confining their efforts in continuing education to vocational courses and to courses preparatory to vocational courses. Non-vocational hobby classes are, wherever possible, held in secondary schools. The nature of the schools' contribution depends greatly on their proximity to universities and institutes, and on local traditions. Where there is no institute, a local secondary school may teach courses ranging from those

for recreation, personal fulfilment, and general education through to courses that prepare for School Certificate, University Entrance, trades, technician, and professional examinations. Outside the formal education system there is also, of course, the contribution made by voluntary organisations, notably the Workers Educational Association and the Countrywomen's Co-ordinating Committee.

The role of the universities in adult education now seems to be well defined. There is room for argument as to whether technical institutes should be limited to courses that are vocationally related. The role of the secondary schools, which are located in every town of any size, is coming under review. There is renewed interest in the use of school buildings for community purposes. The questions are: how far and under what conditions should the formal education system, particularly the secondary schools, be asked to accept greater responsibilities for the continuing education of members of the public; in what further ways should the schools, through their controlling bodies, make their facilities available for use by members of their local communities for social, cultural and recreational purposes; what responsibilities for finance, administrative assistance, and professional guidance should the Department of Education be asked to undertake?

Organisation and administration

Primary and secondary schools, and the educational and administrative services related to them, form the main stem of the system of public education. The primary phase of schooling lasts on average eight years, beginning at age five. For children living in most cities and towns, the last two years of primary schooling take place in intermediate schools. The secondary phase of schooling begins at the average age of 13 and lasts for up to five years. In country districts where the provision of intermediate schools cannot be justified, it is policy to consolidate Form 1 and 2 classes on to high schools, which then become Form 1–7 high schools, or on to district high schools, which then become area schools. Just under two-thirds of all Form 1 and 2 pupils are now enrolled in intermediate schools, Form 1–7 high schools, or area schools. It is Government policy to convert district high schools either to Form 1–7 schools or to area schools.

Pre-school education is provided by voluntary organisations with financial and professional assistance from the State.

Tertiary education is provided in three types of institution: universities, including Lincoln College under this heading; teachers colleges; and technical institutes. The minimum standard for admission to the universities is University Entrance, but most students complete a seventh form year before matriculating. The minimum standard for teachers colleges is the Sixth Form Certificate with designated grades in four subjects, but most students admitted to courses of primary training now have University Entrance as their minimum qualification. Technical institutes have variable standards for admission, depending on the type of course. For many courses, particularly short courses, formal academic qualifications are not significant: it is the nature of the person's work and its relationship to the course being offered that is important. Other courses require School Certificate, University Entrance or Sixth Form Certificate, often with passes in specified subjects at specified levels.

Within the field of technical education the institutes provide courses that are directly related to the vocational needs of their students. The most recently established institutes—Palmerston North, Nelson, Southland and New Plymouth—provide the main courses required in their districts. A wider range of courses, and greater depth, are provided in the larger institutes—Auckland, Waikato, Wellington, Christchurch, and Otago—which have a regional character and in some cases teach courses for which they recruit nationally. The Central Institute of Technology and the Technical Correspondence Institute are national institutions whose main function is to provide courses in fields in which, initially at least, there is insufficient demand for more than one course to be provided for the country.

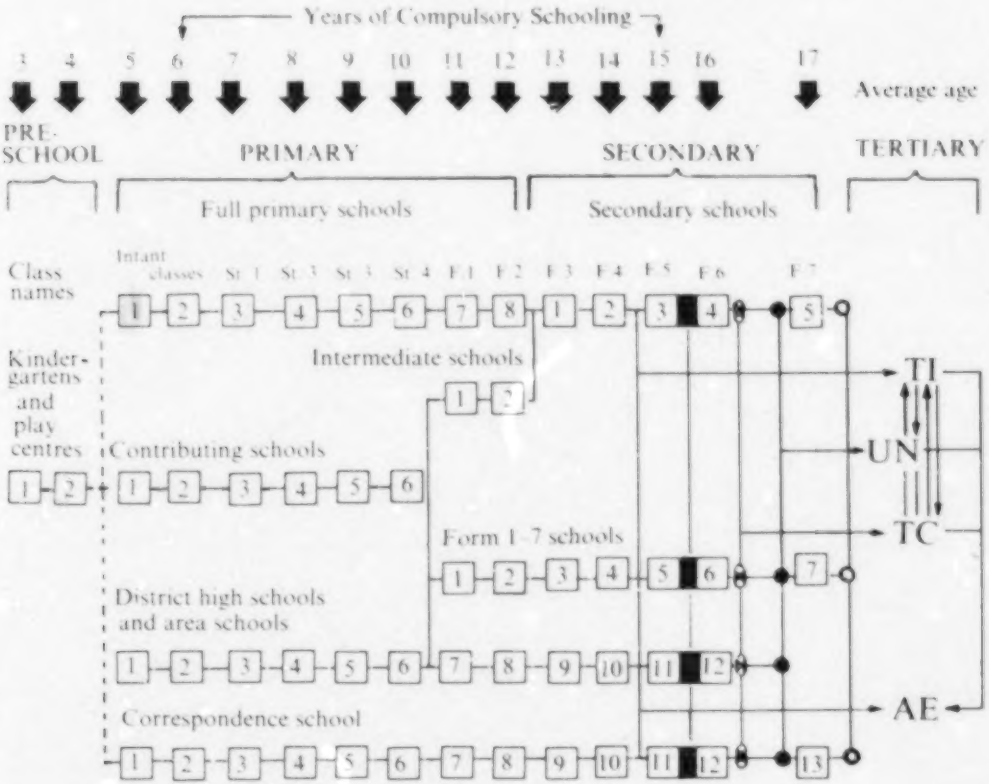
The Education Act 1964, the Universities Act 1961, and the separate Acts relating to each university provide between them the main legal basis of the system. The responsibilities of the Department of Education, the University Grants Committee and the controlling authorities of all State-financed schools, colleges, and universities derive from one or other of these Acts. Other statutory bodies were set up under the National Council of Adult Education Act

1963; the Vocational Training Council Act 1968; the Technicians Certification Authority Act 1958; and the Trades Certification Board Act 1948. These Acts between them provide wide opportunities for public participation in the administration of education at all levels. It is estimated that some 25,000 persons serve on statutory and controlling education bodies. The formal network of consultation is, however, wider than what is defined by statute and regulation. A number of important bodies have been established over the years by the Government or by Ministers of Education to enable opinions to be consulted and advice to be given on particular activities. Of these, the Advisory Council on Educational Planning has a comprehensive order of reference: to advise the Minister or the Director-General on any aspect of educational development. Other important advisory bodies are the National Advisory Committee on Maori Education, the School Certificate Examination Board, the Standing Committee on Teacher Training (a sub-committee of the Advisory Council on Educational Planning) and the standing committees on primary and secondary administration. There is as well ample opportunity for informal discussion with a wide range of organisations with interests in education.

An important feature of these consultative arrangements is the opportunities they provide for consulting the views of teachers on professional matters. Representatives of teachers in State and private schools are members of the Universities Entrance Board and the School Certificate Examination Board. Teachers are appointed to all committees set up by the Minister to revise the school curriculum. The teachers' national organisations are consulted on all matters affecting the development of education and the work of teachers in their respective branches of the system.

The disposition of administrative responsibility within the system has been strongly influenced by historical factors. The system that has resulted is far removed from any theorist's blueprint. Over the years there have been a number of proposals for thoroughgoing re-organisation but none has so far appealed to the various bodies with statutory responsibilities under the Act. In the past, attempts at reform have been concerned in the main with the administrative unification of primary and secondary education and the distribution of responsibility between the Department of Education and the controlling bodies of the schools. These issues are still important. But with the expansion during the last decade of tertiary education, new questions have arisen concerning relationships between the secondary and the tertiary levels of the system and the administration of the tertiary level itself. The Department is conscious of a need to review the resources available to it to discharge its statutory responsibilities and to plan effectively for its own further development. It has views on the form of such a review.

The New Zealand Education System



KEY

TI	UN	TC	AE
Technical Institutes	University Institutions	Teachers Colleges	Adult Education Courses

■ School Certificate ◉ Sixth Form Certificate ● University Entrance ○ Higher School Certificate and or University Bursary or Scholarship

FORM 1–7 School: A school in a rural centre providing an integrated course from Form 1 to Form 7.

DISTRICT HIGH SCHOOL

A primary school, with a secondary department attached, in a small rural centre.

AREA SCHOOL

A school in a small rural centre providing an integrated course from infant classes to Form 6 for children from its immediate neighbourhood and from F 1 to F 6 for pupils from a wider area.